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REVIEW OF NEW WORKS.

MEMOIRS of the AFFAIRS of EUROPE
from the PEACE of UTRECHT. Thin 4to.
MURRAY.

THOUGH no name appears in the title page of this attractive volume, it is unequivocally attributed, by general rumour, to the pen of Lord John Russell, and, as far as we can learn, there is as little desire as there can be occasion, for disavowal on the part of the noble author. We could have wished, indeed, that his superscription had been unequivocally affixed:—that so distinguished a member of the house of Russell had thus given an unreserved sanction to the manly and generous sentiments it so freely breathes:—for although an argument be not the more logical, an opinion the more valid, or a fact more true, because, advanced by a man of rank and family; yet it is received with less jealousy, and passes more current from the stamp and impress of such authority. It is liable to less cavil in the market. The cry of jacobinism, radicalism, levelling and anarchism! or the like is not as easily raised against a liberal sentiment, or a just censure of tyranny and corruption, when uttered by the patriot of conspicuous exalted station, as when it issues from the dark corners of obscurity, or from the lips of the *demagogue* (as he must of course be called) who has nothing but the justice of his cause or the validity of his logic to entitle him to credence or attention. These considerations will, we trust, excuse us both in the estimation of his lordship and the public, if we admit for once, the voice of general rumour as evidence in our critical court, and treat the work before us as the production of Lord John Russell.

Before we enter more particularly into the analysis of its contents or the estimation of its merits, we must, however, observe that, in one respect, the perusal somewhat disappointed us. From the misnomer in the title page "*affairs of Europe from the Peace of Utrecht*" we expected to have found

something like a sketch of, or essay towards a history of European affairs, from the date of that famous treaty to the present time. But the period embraced in this memoir extends in reality no further than to six or eight years beyond the death of Louis XIV.: though the evident object, in an historical point of view, is to shew the influence which the reign and policy of the *Grand Monarch* has had upon the subsequent events which have affected the destinies of the civilized world.

Relative to these, indeed, many pertinent reflections are introduced; and many observations suggested well worthy of the serious attention of those who, in estimating the occurrences and expedients of the present, are not quite indifferent to remoter consequences, and the destinies of the future. Still, however, the work itself, considered with reference to its facts and epoch, is a memoir of the court and politics of the latter days of Louis the Fourteenth; and as a book of reference to the more methodical historian it is nothing more.

Considered in this point of view, it is, however, equally interesting and instructive. It is a supplement at once and an antidote to Voltaire's celebrated, and seductively amusing "*Age of Louis XIV.*" It exposes both sides of the tapestry, and shews the base materials out of which the gaudy glare of the surface has been produced: or, perhaps, we might have said in more appropriate metaphor, it detects by its essay the base materials of fraud and misery which constitute the base of that tinsel glare of frippery and vanity, which courtiers at least, if not nations also, are apt to dignify with the pompous epithets of national glory. It does more: it is a lesson to despots themselves (if they are capable of being taught), as well as to nations. It shews them, that to enslave their subjects they must become enslaved themselves. The labour of the galleys would scarcely be more insupportable to a generous and energetic mind, than the drudgery of mechanical

mechanical etiquette, and the laborious duplicity which supported the dignity of this worshipped king: while the joyless arrogance of that mean and sordid reptile called a courtier, might be chastised and edified by the evidence of that debasing and heart-gnawing dependence which is the inevitable concomitant of his proud servility.

With reference to our own country, the publication is judiciously timed. It is a voice of warning to a court, but too evidently tending, in its tastes and propensities, to the "pride, pomp, and circumstance" of military despotism; and even to the resumption of the very liveries of courtly servitude and dependence; *—to a generation but too evidently disposed to confound the splendour of expanding streets and towering edifices (things in themselves which, if estimated only at their proper worth, we neither condemn nor despise) and the refinements of an ostentatious luxury (which at best can be enjoyed but by a few) with the genuine progress of civilization—which if real and legitimate must tend to the moral and intellectual exaltation, and to the improved condition of the whole community.

But let us not tread in the digressive path of our contemporaries, and ramble into a disquisition, while we profess an analysis.

Prefixed to this volume, with a laudable respect to reference and authorities, is an account of some of the books quoted: of which we shall particularize only, and that in the way of extract, *Œuvres de Louis XIV.*:—

"The best edition of this work is in six volumes, 8vo. It consists of several parts. One part, but the least important, was placed in the King's library at Paris by the Maréchal Duc de Noailles, to whom it had been given by Louis XIV. himself. Another portion was given by Louis XVI. to General Grimoard, the editor of a part of the work. Another was given by the Abbé Sallier, Librarian of the King's library, to the editor of the *Œuvres Mêlées* of Pelisson. With respect to the *Memoirs*, it seems to be agreed, that they are in the handwriting of Pelisson, who was employed by the King in 1672, as his historiographer.

* See the orders issued and the preparations making for the assumption of Civil uniforms: by which the office to which every clerk and functionary belongs, is to be recorded in the cut and colour of the coat and cape he wears, and the buttons with which it is to be adorned. Why not give him a shoulder knot also at once.

"In page 15 of the copy deposited by the Duke of Noailles, is the following note, 'Le roi a mieux mis cet endroit: je n'ai pu bien retenir les termes précis, et puis avoir oublié d'autres choses ailleurs.' It would appear from this note, that Pelisson wrote from the King's dictation, and put this note in the copy delivered to the King for his perusal and approbation. Another note leads to the same conclusion."

At the end of the *Memoirs* for the year 1661, Pelisson, we are told, has a very long note, a passage of which is quoted:—

"From the beginning it would seem that all was the King's; and from the end, that the reflections at least were chiefly Pelisson's. It will perhaps be safe to conclude, that the King dictated from notes (of which many are still remaining) the history of the year; that Pelisson wrote from what he had heard, adding many of the reflections, and nearly all the form. Another point to be considered is, at what time these *Memoirs* were composed. Now, at the end of the first manuscript, p. 100, of the printed edition, he says, many of his ancestors have waited till the end of their lives before they gave exhortations of this kind to their children, but that he writes 'lorsque la vigueur de mon âge, la liberté de mon esprit, et l'état florissant de mes affaires ne vous permettroient point d'y soupçonner de déguisement ou de les attribuer à la vue du péril.' Speaking of the employment of his time in 1666, he says, "quand après cela, j'avois quelques momens de reste, je les employois aux *Mémoires* que vous lisez maintenant." Here then we have the beginning of the *Memoirs*; but their completion in their present form seems to have taken place long afterwards; for in the year 1661, speaking of the belief of his taking a prime minister, he says, "Le temps a fait voir ce qu'il en falloit croire, et c'est ici la dixième année que je marche." These dates enable us to add to our estimate of the value of the *Memoirs*. We see that they were not drawn up in haste, and given away without revision. They were the early employment of the King in his leisure moments in the year 1666. Pelisson says, in a letter to Louis XIV. in 1671, 'that the King had drawn him from a state of misfortune and disgrace nine months before.' It was soon after this, probably, he was entrusted with the *Memoirs*. They thus come to us, adorned indeed by the reflections of a stranger, but approved and weighed by Louis XIV. with the most scrupulous care. It is probable that he left to his grandson and successor more perfect copies, one of which Louis puts into the hands of General Grimoard. There are some corrections in the hand of Louis in the last copy, which shew that he adopted them. In speaking of the plan of giving the crown of Poland, the MS. says, that what touched him the most was, that

it was an opportunity which seldom occurs of making a present of a crown; and Louis adds, 'et de l'assurer à la France.' In the next page are two other corrections in his own hand-writing. Upon the whole then we may conclude, that although these Memoirs are, as M. Flassan observes, neither in the hand-writing nor in the style of Louis, they are nevertheless composed from notes of his dictation, and contain sentiments which he either suggested, or was willing to adopt as his own."

Thus the pretensions of *le Grand Monarque* to a place in the catalogue of royal authors, seems to be as well established as those of the present generation of his *illustrious* descendants.

The introduction to the work itself breathes no equivocal portion of the spirit of the philosophical historian. It commences by calling attention "to the difference of the mode in which the characters of ancient and [of] modern nations have been formed."

"Ancient cities falling at once into political society, and requiring forms of government to hold them together, were obliged to appoint some one person, or some body of persons, to frame regulations for the conduct of general affairs, and the maintenance of order. These early legislators finding themselves thus called upon to prescribe the institutions of an infant state, extended their directions to every thing which might influence the well being of the commonwealth: manners, dress, food, amusements, became an object of public care for punishment or reward. The members of these communities thus became attached to the peculiar customs of their city; and when attacked by a foreign enemy they defended themselves with the more vigour and perseverance, as conquest implied the loss not only of liberty, but of all the habits of their lives, endeared to them by long prescription and legislative sanction. Of the same nature are the institutions of those countries where religion and government walking hand in hand have laid down rules for every part of life, for eating, drinking, washing, sleeping; such as the Mahometan nations, the Hindus, and the Chinese.

The people of modern Europe have been cast in a different mould. Consisting originally of the wild inhabitants of woods, the bond of society held them but loosely together, and they ranged over the forest as unfettered in their actions as the streams that ran from their mountains, here breaking into a torrent, and there swelling to an inundation. They are described by one of the greatest historians of antiquity as fond of idleness, but hating peace: eager for war wheresoever it was to be found, and engaging willingly in the quarrels of their neighbours: following as leaders those who displayed

the most valour, and choosing as kings those* who could boast the most illustrious descent: meeting frequently to consult on the interests of their tribe: leaving the decision of minor concerns to their chiefs, and reserving the discussion of the greater for the deliberation of all: paying peculiar honour to their women, for whom they willingly risked their lives: regarding with superstitious reverence the admonitions of their priests; and worshipping their gods in groves beneath no other canopy but that of heaven, and with no other temples than those which nature had formed. It was one of the consequences of the slight texture of the frame by which the German people were held together, that few attributes belonged to the supreme power."

Hence, also, the author considers as derived the fewness and simplicity of our ancient laws, the confinement of punishments almost exclusively to "treason (or rather treachery) and cowardice," and the right of personal justice and revenge; whence "the law of honour and the age of chivalry."

"Much of this strange mixture of ferocious cruelty with refined gallantry, is undoubtedly to be attributed to the intercourse of the Christians with the Moors and the Arabs: in the wars of Spain and the Crusades were learnt those refinements with which an eastern imagination had adorned the exercise of brute force and animal courage. But, be its origin what it might, the spirit of chivalry produced a system of manners totally distinct from the government, and forming as it were a separate code which the laws of the state had not created and could not suppress. The member of an ancient state could hear himself grossly abused by his fellow-citizen, without any obligation to retaliate, otherwise than by words: the noble or knight of Germany or France was compelled either to draw his sword against his accuser, or to lose his character in society. No form of law, no species of tribunal could dispense with the necessity of revenge: and from the Bay of Naples to the Mountains of Inverness, he who has been wronged by word or deed, thought himself bound to seek satisfaction in the blood of his adversary. In Italy and in Scotland, the death of the aggressor procured by any means was considered a lawful atonement; and so far was this principle extended, that not many years have elapsed since a judge was slain at Edinburgh by the party against whom he had pronounced a legal decision. In other parts of Europe the practice of single combat was usual, honourable, nay almost indispensable; and there can be no better proof

* Surely his Lordship should have added, "the wisest and ablest of those who," &c.: for "illustrious birth" was not alone a title to election.

proof of the supremacy of opinion over law, than the fact that Louis the XIVth, who affixed the most severe penalties to the offence of fighting a duel, would allow no man in his own regiment to refuse a challenge."

On the subject of the feudal governments which progressively resulted from this primitive state of things, his lordship thus expresses himself, p. 13. :—

"The nobility of Europe formed in every country but England," [*his Lordship refers we presume to Saxon England, before the Norman Conquest: for certainly to the Norman nobility the exception will not apply—they, as much as any other, formed*] "a class totally distinct from the rest of the community; possessed of the fortresses and the lands of country, the king was their subject and the people were their slaves; cherishing the notion of their own superiority in power, in valour, and in honour, they treated with the proudest contempt the laws and the judges who pretended to controul their actions."

After noticing the very different station assigned to women by the institutions of ancient and modern Europe, the author proceeds to observe that "another particular in which modern states differ most essentially from ancient commonwealths is the abolition of slavery; and the principal share in this abolition is most assuredly very justly attributed to the influence of Christianity:—to "the opinion that it was wrong for a Christian to keep a Christian in slavery."—

"Alfred, King of England, orders in the 11th section of his laws, that if any person buy a Christian servant he shall serve six years, but in the seventh he shall be manumitted. Sir Thomas Smith informs us, that the clergy never ceased preaching against the sin of retaining Christians in slavery. In 1067, Pope Alexander the III. declared in the name of a council, "that all Christians ought to be exempt from servitude." Political events hastened the emancipation of the slaves; the cities made all their inhabitants free in order to increase their strength against the barons; and the barons gave freedom to their vassals that they might not be tempted to take refuge in the towns."

It is a singular fact in the history of opinions, that—

"The practice of carrying off negroes from the coast of Africa was commenced by the Portuguese at the very period when the slavery of Christians was nearly abolished in Europe."

The observations which ensue on "one political consequence which has followed," this nevertheless rejoiced in abolition of slavery, bears the strong mark of a discriminating and reflecting mind. :—

In modern Europe, to be free is no distinction; it does not prevent men from being sordid, dependent, totally ignorant, and little better than the cattle of the field: a new distinction therefore has been desired, and vanity seeks to be noble. A strange result which was not easily to be foreseen has followed. The distinction of freedom induced men to defend liberty; the distinction of nobility has induced them to defend a monopoly of power and privilege, and to favour a system of political slavery nearly as degrading to human nature as the personal slavery of ancient republics."

We congratulate ourselves upon such sentiments flowing from such a source. The nobility of no country can entirely become either despised for its servile vices, or abhorred for its monopolizing arrogance, while distinguished individuals of its class give currency to such manly principles. The rapid sketch which follows is as just as it is comprehensive and compressive:—

"The elements of all feudal states were the same; a king, partly hereditary, and partly elected; a nobility, sometimes obedient and sometimes independent; a general assembly of clergy, nobles, and people, at one time conceding to their sovereign power incompatible with freedom, and at another depriving him of the authority necessary to preserve internal peace. The kings of France were surpassed in real power by many of their vassals: The kings of Leon and Castile were regularly elected by the Cortes, and the nobility of Arragon formally claimed the privilege of deposing their sovereign. In those times rapine and disorder prevailed; justice could not be obtained but at the point of the sword; license was every where, and liberty no where. The invasions of royal prerogative were opposed by the excesses of popular tumult: commerce and industry were overwhelmed by feudal rights, and every order of the state acquired the supreme direction of the helm of government in turn, only to shew itself unworthy to retain it."

Upon his Lordship's idea of the wisdom of "constructing a stable government for the nations of Europe by an equitable division of the supreme power between the king, the nobles, and the people," scepticism perhaps may be induced to make some pause as to the degree of its practicability, and sound reason perhaps will be compelled to the conclusion,

conclusion, that whatever degree of practicability it may be capable of, must be dependant upon the elements and principles of which, and by which the order of nobility is composed. If the king can ennoble at his discretion, the the drudges of office, the flatterers of his person, the upholders of his prerogative, the ministers of his luxury and his pleasures—what is to prevent him from having always a subservient majority of noblesse, and practically concentrating in himself two parts, at least, of this theoretically three-fold division of the supreme power. If territorial possession be the primitive basis of hereditary nobility, and the titular patent of power once obtained, by whatever means, be inalienably entailed beyond the taint of imbecility, profligacy, and abuse, what wisdom or what integrity is to be expected from its councils, or what moderation in the exercise of that influence which rank and territorial property never fail to secure to their inheritor! what limits to the subserviency, by which the needy and bankrupted of such a class may be induced to eke out the wasted means of supporting their ostentatious pretensions? The despotism of the throne and the despotism of the aristocracy may have their fluctuations in the struggle of such elements, but what in either case is likely to become of the theoretical share of the people in this three-fold division of the supreme power? Besides—who are the people in whom this pretended third of the supreme power is to be vested? Does his lordship include under this term, the entire whole of the adult population? or, if not, (draw the line of distinction where we will), under what denomination are to be classed the remnant of two-legged beings, who are neither to be ranked among people, lords, nor kings?—must we consider them as mere political machines, as biped automations, or class them with our beasts of burthen? Are we to understand, on the other hand, by the people, only those who may come into occasional association with the nobility, or who stand within the sphere of their immediate or incidental influence? If so—what are the people but the thralls and vassals of the noblesse? and what is to become of the rights and interests of those who are excluded from the enumeration? This interrogation may sound a little harsh and grating; but the solution of the enigma they propose, is indispensably necessary are the proposition be-

fore us can be understood; and we must beg to be excused from assenting to any proposition till at least we can understand its terms.

We will concede, however, to his Lordship, that under the apparent auspices of a system, or species of government explained by something like the phraseology of his Lordship's theory, this country has hitherto happily maintained, or rather, from time to time, has managed to work out for itself a degree of liberty which surrounding nations (less jealous, or less fortunate, in the defence of their ancient immunities), might well behold with envy. But whether this is to be accounted for from the happier adjustment, or more "equitable division of the supreme power between the king, the nobles, and the people," at the time when the former general assault of royal usurpation, alluded to by his Lordship, was made upon the rights of the people is another question.

His Lordship has, indeed, with a few brief strokes of his pen, correctly and ably described the characteristics of the the sovereigns of that day, and by whom such mighty changes were suddenly wrought in the relative conditions and dependences of kings and people.

"In considering the causes of the supremacy obtained by monarchs, much also is to be attributed to the personal qualities of the sovereigns who reigned towards the close of the fifteenth century. The kings of that day were more enlightened than the nobles of the country, and had much more knowledge of public affairs than the inhabitants of cities. Louis the XIth of France, Henry the VIIth of England, and Ferdinand of Arragon, most skillfully took advantage of the period when the nations of Europe were too much civilized to bear any longer the anarchy of former ages, but not sufficiently so to for a regular government for themselves."—"Lewis was the most remarkable for cruelty, Henry for avarice, and Ferdinand for perfidy. Each succeeded in his object, but Lewis most fully and completely. The people of France had been already subdued in the preceding reigns, and it only remained for him to oppress the nobles. The barons were more divided from the people in France than in Spain, and in Spain more than in England. The states-general of France were soon blotted out of her government; a mine was laid in Spain for the destruction of the Cortes; but neither the subtle artifice of Henry the VIIth. nor the jovial disposition of Henry VIIIth. could induce the people of England to part for ever with their Parliaments."

All this is specious enough. But most assuredly

assuredly the facts of history will not bear out the supposition that it was either the power, or the patriot virtue of the nobility, or the sensitive consciousness of an identity of interests between them and the people that prevented Henry VIII. from doing without a parliament. The power of the nobility had been brought into abeyance by the confiscations, decapitations, and slaughters of the civil wars of York and Lancaster, and their humiliation had been completed by the cold-blooded fiscal policy of Henry VII. Henry VIII. smiled the degenerate remnant of a once imperious baronage into sycophant-like servility, or frowned them into extinction, as his jollity or the caprice of the moment dictated; or shortened them by the head with as little ceremony as he did his wives; and with as much indifference apparently as he dissipated the treasures which the avarice of his father had accumulated, or his own rapacity could seize; and it was not, in fact, to the *virtues* of the nobility, but to the *vices* of the king, that the people of England were indebted for the preservation of what was preserved of their liberties. Had not his profligate prodigality kept pace with his insatiable tyranny—had he husbanded with forethought and economy what with unsparing rapacity he seized, he need never have even asked the people of England to part with their parliaments. He might have ruled of his own will without them; and the experiment of governing the nation by a privy council, and a star-chamber, need not have been deferred till the people themselves had become sufficiently assured in their intelligence and their power to set at defiance both king and lords united, when they attempted so unconstitutional an innovation. Had he appropriated to the permanent purposes of his government the domains and treasures, of which he plundered the monks and monasteries, (and who, whatever might have been their real vices, and how much soever we may rejoice in their suppression, were certainly neither more hypocritical, more profligate, nor more oppressively intolerant than himself), what, we should be glad to know, would have stood in the way of his despotic will? But what monks and abbots reserved for their own voluptuousness, or dispensed to the blind, the halt, the indigent—perhaps to the idle, of their respective neighbourhoods, he wasted at once upon his more insatiate and ostentatious gratifications, or dispensed among the courtly favourites of the hour. And though his dissolute prodigality assured our redemption from the gripe of despotism, by rendering the crown still dependent for its revenues on the votes of parliament, and his thoughtless profusion laid the foundations also for the power and opulence of the patriot house of Russell; yet, let us not, in our gratitude to that Providence, which has thus brought good out of evil, sacrifice our reason to a baseless theory, and from a present exception, making out a rule for the past, ascribe events to causes which had not even a shadow of influence in their production.

In the enquiry, how it happened that “the period of the revival of letters, to which we are accustomed to look back as the commencement of every liberal art and civilized institution, should be in fact the æra of the downfall of freedom, and of the establishment of arbitrary power?”—and “how it happened that, at such a time” the people of the continent of Europe resigned their ancient liberties and prescriptive constitutions with such degrading tameness?

We give to his Lordship’s solution a more unhesitating acquiescence. Uninfluenced here by those natural prejudices, that irresistible *esprit du corps*, which links us to rank and class, he looks upon facts with a clear and philosophic eye, and beholds at once the cause in that “*love* (if it be not too *weak* a word) of property,” which came in upon the nations with the spring-tide flow of commerce and civilization; and which taught (a lesson by the cupidity of the grasping, the ostentatious, and the voluptuous, how quickly conned) that the accumulation of pelf is more estimable than the security of rights, and even concentrates all rights in the one sordid idea of such accumulation:—

“So as the government left their subjects undisturbed in the enjoyment of property and ease, therefore, the community was ready to leave the government to act as it pleased in matters of political concern. Hence an indifference prevailed on the continent from the beginning of the sixteenth to the middle of the eighteenth century on questions of mere liberty”

What a warning this to the present generation! What a picture of the growing state of feeling in this prosperous and most flourishing nation! Happily, indeed, the diffusion of education and the industry of the press are spreading intelligence, with uncontrolling rapidity

pidity, beyond the circle of those classes to which the allurements of parade and luxury, and the hopes of accumulation can be extended; but in the *better* classes of the community, as they are courteously called, (i. e. the *better conditioned*) is not properly, almost universally, in phrase or inference, substituted in the place of rights? or are not rights themselves almost exclusively talked of in reference to the protection and the encouragement of accumulating property. Splendid mansions and rolling carriages, multiplying out of number, obscure from our eyes the beggary and wretchedness of thousands of neglected labourers; and even our sympathies are invited to change their reference from the sufferings of our fellow beings to pounds shillings and pence. If conflagrations reduce a village, or a factory to ashes, or inundations deluge a track of country, the detail that is dwelt upon is not the number of wretched labourers or manufacturers, with their dependent families, that are reduced to want and wretchedness, but the amount in hundreds and thousands of pecuniary loss that is to fall upon a few "proprietors." What state of mind more favourable could a court or a government require, which should wish to establish the pomp of military dominion and the influence of unawed corruption in the place of chartered liberties, and inherent or traditional rights?

With a brief expression of general approbation, we must hurry through the successive sections on the *Relations of Governments to each other*; the *Balance of Power*; the *Law of Nations*; and the *Reformation*;* and must satisfy ourselves from the pages they occupy with the quotation of a single paragraph.

"The whole system of the balance of power may be considered as having been subverted by the partition of Poland. The success of that enterprize put an end at once to the moral feeling and physical divisions on which the ancient law of Europe was founded. Catherine of Russia despised a code which had been established and recognized while her empire was still wholly barbarous; her neighbour of Prussia, weak in territory, unprincipled in conduct,

* We must not, however, neglect to quote the well-grounded datum, that "The Reformation, and the French Revolution, may be regarded as the great stations from which future historians will date the events of modern history." The world has not yet done, nor ever will have done, with the occasions for remembering and understanding both.

readily joined her; and Maria Theresa, on the disgrace of her name, for the misfortune of Europe, and to her own unavailing regret, sanctioned the destruction of the law of nations, which, it has been truly said, had often before been violated, but was now totally overthrown."

In the ensuing section on Internal Government, his Lordship enters freely into the statement and examination of "the extent of the authority of kings, and the inviolability of the law under which they claimed it.

"They assumed an absolute right of disposing of the lives and properties of their subjects by a commission from the Divine Creator of all things, authorizing them and their descendants to reign for ever. This doctrine was compounded partly of the slavish maxims of the Roman Imperial law; partly of the Jewish dispensation; and partly of the precepts found in the books of revealed religion. The theory of the Roman law was, that the Emperor held by various titles all the authority which the Roman people once divided amongst the various offices of Consul, Pontifex, Tribune of the people, Military Tribune, &c. The Jewish dispensation teaches us that kings were selected by heaven itself to reign over the Jews. The epistles of St. Paul enjoin his disciples to obey, and order them to preserve inviolate that allegiance which, in the fervour of enthusiasm, created by a new revelation, they were probably inclined to renounce.* Fortified with these authorities, and supported by the lawyers and clergy of their dominions, the kings of Europe did not hesitate to claim a power which Augustus or Charlemagne would have deemed exorbitant. In England, indeed, this degrading dogma did not long prevail. Lord Shaftesbury, speaking of it in one of his speeches, calls it the Laudean doctrine, but

* The passage of St. Paul, "Let every soul be subject unto the higher powers. For there is no power but of God: the powers that be are ordained of God. Whosoever therefore resisteth the power resisteth the ordinance of God," has been the source of the slavish doctrines held by Christian divines in modern times. Yet upon the slightest examination the interpretation affixed to it during several centuries of ignorance or bigotry will appear erroneous. The enemies of Christ wished to impute to him that his intentions aimed at the destruction of the governments of the earth in order to substitute his own power, and even some of his own followers imagined that by the new dispensation they were not absolved from all civil duties, and were to form part of a society constituted on a new basis. To do away this error, Christ said, "Render unto Cæsar the things which are Cæsar's:" and with the same view, St. Paul informed his followers that they were absolved from the duties of allegiance, and that civil government was an institution approved by God. In short, the Christian religion left the question of government exactly where it found it, and by no means introduced new political maxims. Neither Christ nor his apostles anywhere recommend any particular form of government as divine, teach that a monarchy is more sacred than a republic, or abolish the rights inherent in mankind of constituting their government in the form and manner they think best adapted for their happiness and security.

but in fact, it was anterior to Laud, and had been introduced into this country by James the First. It was received with still more favour by the clergy, than by the lawyers or soldiers of the Cavalier party, for we nowhere find it so strongly professed as in the speech of the Vice-Chancellor of Cambridge, and the infamous decree of the University of Oxford, afterwards ordered to be burnt by the common hangman."

We hope it will not be thought an unpardonable digression, if we observe by the way, that this too prevalent propension of the clergy to servile politics and their apparent pliancy to the purposes of arbitrary encroachment and courtly corruption is, we verily believe, the principal cause of that zeal with which many, not otherwise vicious or inconsiderate individuals, co-operate in the diffusion of deistical doctrines and principles of unbelief. Independently of the evidences of its divine original, in the conclusiveness of which the description of persons alluded to may perhaps not coincide, the Christian religion is at any rate so superior in moral beauty to all other religions or superstitions of which we have either present evidence or treasured record: so much more accordant to the present habitudes of civilization, and so much more in unison with every benignant and every social feeling: while, at the same time, the whole evidence of record and observation on the general constitution and propensions of the human mind so demonstrably evince that a clinging to the idea of something supernatural, an unperishing and unperishable something upon which the imagination can repose, is almost inseparable (in the mass of mankind at least) from the very power of thought; that he who can believe that the mass of the population of any country can any more live without a religion of some sort or other, than they can live without bread, has little reason to laugh at the credulity of those who can believe in any creed, how replete soever with dogmas the most incongruous to experience. With the evidence for these convictions before his eyes, what friend of reason or of man, (however inveterate his own unbelief), would wish to disturb the faith of the Christian multitude?—to set them free awhile from the restraints of the Christian law, only that after struggling awhile in the anchorless sea, and comfortless gloom of scepticism, (for such to them it could only be), they might fall the more easily into all the absur-

dities of some new system of superstition that might be preached to them. There is but one answer to this that we have ever heard; and the clergy, (if they wish to silence the zeal of unbelievers), would do well to consider it. It is—that religion is made a stalking horse for political purposes: that the sermons of the clergy, their pamphlets and their two-penny tracts are the servile doctrines of adulation to the powers that be; and that they render the pretended sanctity of their function subservient to the oppressor, instead of protective to the oppressed. Whilst such are the purposes to which the profession of religion is perverted, the friend of man, confounding the use with the abuse, may be the enemy of religion; reform the abuse of such perversion, and every friend of man will be the friend of Christianity also. But to return to the memoir—

"This theory, as despotic and as destructive of freedom as the theocratic dogma of the Turkish sultans, is nowhere to be found so positively and expressly laid down as in the writings of Lewis the XIVth. He founded his supreme power not on the laws of his kingdom, or the consent of the nation, but on the doctrine that kings were appointed and maintained in their thrones by God himself. In speaking to his son of the reverence due to religion, he says: 'To tell you the truth, my son, we are wanting not only in justice, but in prudence, when we are wanting in veneration for him of whom we are only the lieutenants. Our submission for him, is the rule and the example of that which is due to us. The armies, the councils, all human industry, would be weak means of maintaining us upon the throne, if every one believed that he had the same right as we, and did not revere a superior power, of which ours is a part. The public homage which we render to this invisible power might justly be styled the first and most important part of our policy, if it were not that it ought to have a motive more noble and more disinterested.'"

We believe it is perfectly unnecessary in our pages to follow the arguments by which the *noble* confutes the doctrines of the *royal* author; brands them as giving sanction to the atrocities of "blood and vice," to "robbery and murder;" and as no less injurious to Divine Providence than degrading to human nature; while, at the same time, he exposes their inapplicable absurdity, by tracing the successive usurpations and dispensations

* If he was not, indeed, a bastard of Corral Mazarine's, and the man in the iron mask, the real heir to the throne.

dispensations with this divine right, which made way for the present, (at that rate *unhallowed* and *illegitimate*), dynasty of the Bourbons, of which this same *grand monarque* was the sometime representative.—[See note, p. 584.]

“When the Merovingian kings had become so contemptible as to fall entirely under the authority of the mayor of the palace, Pepin sent to the Pope to propose to him, as a case of conscience, whether it were fit, in the present situation of Europe, that a man incapable of reigning, should hold in France the rank of king, whilst the royal power was exercised by another, who made a right use of it. The Pope answered, that it was better to give the title of king to him who exercised the authority. In consequence of this decision, Childeric and his son were imprisoned in a monastery, and Pepin assumed the crown. Little more than a hundred years after this, we find the chief of the second race confessing that he held his crown by the authority of the bishops. In a manifesto against the Archbishop of Sens and others, who had revolted, he said, ‘I ought not to have been deposed before I had been judged by the bishops, who gave me the royal unction; they are the thrones of God, and I have always submitted myself, as I am still ready to do, to their correction.’ At length another revolution deposed the dynasty of Charlemagne: Hugh Capet seized the throne, and made prisoner Charles of Lorraine, the legitimate heir.

“These events undoubtedly throw some doubts upon the infallibility of the monarchical dogma. Lewis indeed alleges that Hugh Capet took possession of the crown with the approbation of Providence; but it is not clear why an enterprize sanctioned by divine authority in the 10th century, should never again be repeated without exciting the divine displeasure.”

The author, after discussing through several pages the reasons and causes why the very circumstance of a prince, being educated for arbitrary power, should render him the more unfit or incapable to exercise it with wisdom and benignity, proceeds to the “still more important branch of the inquiry—

“Whether, in spite of these defeinets the rulers, the people under them enjoyed the benefits which are reasonably to be expected from a mild and just government?”

“The objects of men in suffering the restraints of civil government are chiefly the following:—First; to obtain protection against the violence of the members of their own society. Secondly; to obtain means of protection against the violence of other societies or states. These are the primary ends of all government. But as all power leads directly to abuse, there come to be other ends equally necessary to be obtained,

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in order to protect the community from the very government which they themselves maintain and support for the purposes of defence and security. The two principal of these are; the one, that no other restraints be imposed than those which are necessary to provide for the safety of the citizen and the state; and the other, that no other distinctions be made between different classes of the people than such as have in them more of benefit to the society at large, than of injury to those who are deprived of them. In these two conditions consist liberty and equality; I mean civil liberty, and equality in the eye of the law.

“Now these conditions were not observed in the absolute monarchies of Europe. Generally speaking, they had the following glaring defects:—First. Justice was not fairly done between man and man; but either partially exercised, or basely sold, to the great injury of the people at large.—Second. The money that was raised to provide for the expenses of justice, and of defending the state against foreign enemies, was squandered among the vilest of the nation, bestowed on sycophants, knaves and harlots; wasted in dress, riot and debauchery.—Third. Persons were placed in the most important situations, charged with the conduct of armies, or the management of negotiations, without any qualification but interest and subserviency.—Fourth. Powers, which the experience of other governments had shewn not to be necessary, were exercised by princes and their ministers; for instance—the power of imprisoning and otherwise destroying the subject at will; a power grievous in its application, and peculiarly liable to abuse.—Fifth. Restraints were placed upon the freedom and industry of the people by the most oppressive and unwise regulations; by dividing them into different little states independent of each other; by grinding and destructive taxes; by absurd laws on commerce and manufactures: by controlling the liberty of speech and writing; and by religious persecutions.—Sixth. Unjust, cruel, and invidious distinctions were made between different classes, by giving to one class a monopoly of the benefits, and an exemption from the burthens of the state. At the same time these distinctions, dearly purchased as they were, were of no advantage to the community, for they were only to be obtained by means of political corruption or worse vices.

“Such being the faults of these governments, no sooner had the people become enlightened in any one of the nations which lived under them, than they asked for a reform. It was evident indeed to all sagacious minds long before the event happened, that it was impossible to allow the people to become instructed, without very great alterations in the administration of the state. There were but two ways open for preventing a collision between the people

and their sovereign. The first was that adopted by the government of Spain, viz. to close all the avenues to knowledge, to bury the people in utter darkness, to prevent their discovering the nature of the prison in which they were confined. The second method was to reform in time; to grant what justice, honesty, and knowledge required, and refuse the rest."

We need hardly say that these reflections lead immediately to some observations on the French Revolution. In these there are some remarks just upon the whole, though perhaps not quite untainted with some tinge of the prejudices of rank on the composition of revolutionary parties. Nothing certainly can be more true than "that there are two very different classes of men who are anxious promoters of reform in states; the one composed out of the best, the other out of the worst of a nation."

It is in the filling up of the outlines of this sketch that we suspect a little discolouring.

"The former class consists of men of ardent philanthropy, of studious habits, of pure and simple manners, who in all the faults of a government see only the vice of institutions, and adopt with eager and dangerous facility the belief, that if laws were wise, mankind would be virtuous. Irreconcilable enemies to crime, they are always prepared to throw every reproach upon the rulers of the world, and to indulge the flattering dream, that if the seat of power were in the people at large, bad passions would never be allowed to have sway."

We do not believe that "a dream so flattering" ever entered the imagination of such philanthropists. It would be a dreamy sort of philosophy, indeed, which supposed that the multitude were incapable of bad passions. But Despots and Oligarchs have their bad passions too. They have, also, selfish interests to goad, and are liable to be goaded by those bad passions: frequently directly opposite to the interests of the multitude. They have their sophistical artifices also, to inflame and play off the bad passions of one part of that multitude against another part, till the interests of both may be made their prey. It is possible therefore, for a man "of ardent philanthropy, of studious habits, and simple manners" to believe, without being quite a dreamer, that the interests of all may be quite as safely entrusted to the passions of all — who, if they go wrong, must be themselves the sufferers—as to the uncontrolled pas-

sions of a despot, or a handful of Oligarchs; who have often an interest of their own in doing the wrong, whose pernicious consequences are to fall upon others, while the profit only remains to them. It is possible for a philosopher to believe, without the phantasm of a dream to prompt him, that, the good of the whole being the only legitimate end of government, even the very selfishness of the respective individuals who compose that whole, when balanced and counter-balanced, and summed up into an aggregate of results, may amount to the general benefit desired; while the selfishness of a select, or self constituted few, (whether it be the blood of hereditary nobility, or the blood of official clerkship, that feeds their passions and flows through their veins,) can only be likely by a similar process of arithmetical calculation, to give, as the amount, the aggregate interest of that few, which might happen, and frequently does happen, to be in direct opposition to the interest of the excluded multitude; who are, nevertheless, to be governed by the decision. If it had pleased the Almighty to create a hierarchy of angels, all purity, prescience, and benevolence, to fill the functions and wear the trappings of nobility, the case might, indeed, have been different; and madness, not philosophy, could alone have dreamed of calling in the suffrages of the people. But, the enlightened author of this memoir need not be reminded, that even of our English Oligarchy, all are not Russels; or that even the Russels themselves, endeared as the name has been to the remembrances of more than a century, are yet but mortal; and are susceptible to the passions, to the prejudices, and the partialities of mortality. But let us proceed to the counterpart of the picture.

"The second class consists of men of a far different description. All who in a low rank bear a malignant envy to their superiors; all who by a loose and profligate life have lost their credit and their character; all who from a passion for excitement are in want of dreadful events and cruel revolutions to give them emotions, swell the ranks of this numerous body. Men like these hate the superiority of virtue still more than that of birth and property, and are more dissatisfied with the prospect of a people remaining tranquil under reformed laws, and wise rulers, than with the sway of ancient abuses, and vicious tyrants. They come like furies upon the scenes of revolution,

tion, breathing discord and distrust into the bosoms of the people, who, awakened from their former slumbers, are at these times, too apt to see a tyrant in whoever aspires to conduct them."

He must have shut his eyes, indeed, to the evidences of experience, who does not admit, that men of every one of the descriptions here enumerated do, in reality, even in this country, swell the heterogeneous ranks of the numerous body of reformers. But is there not in fact, some strange admixture of fallacy and prejudice veiled even beneath the very truism of this description? His Lordship, be it remembered, has divided the reformers into but two classes; and he has described them both. Unhappy, indeed, is this country, and worse than desperate are the prospects of all reform, if there be in reality no other. But let us proceed to the analysis.

That "men of low rank" there undoubtedly are, who "bear a malignant envy to their superiors," cannot be rationally denied: for men of all ranks are liable to envy; and sometimes, it may even be found in the assemblies of Oligarchs, and in the Courts of Kings. But does not his Lordship mean to insinuate—nay, did not his own prejudices secretly whisper to him while, he wrote this sentence, that all men of inferior rank who profess themselves reformers, do so from such malignant envy? If so, we must venture to dissent from so sweeping a censure; and to call in question the impartiality of his Lordship's judgment, and his knowledge of human nature. There are minds of unsullied purity in humble, as well, as in exalted stations: morals as well as intellects, that soar above the sordid destiny of birth and occupation; that plume themselves in higher attributes amid the wrecks and frowns of fortune: that belong, in fact, to Nature's own nobility, though their lot is among plebians. Shall such men be forbidden to be reformers, lest their aspirations in behalf of truth and justice, and the rights and duties of universal benevolence, should doom them to be classed and confounded with those, who, from the lowness of their rank alone, bear a malignant envy to those above them?

Nay, may not the charge of malignant envy be sometimes hurled back upon the superiors themselves?—Not upon the noble author of this highly creditable, and, generally speaking, truly liberal and patriotic memoir.

Nothing can be further from our thoughts than a personality. But we would wish the eyes of his Lordship to be open to the failings as well as the virtues of his own class; and to the virtues as well as the vices of those beneath him. Is there never any such thing as a malignant—a proscriptive, a persecuting envy on the part of the superior classes, when they behold the bursts of intellect, or of any thing like popular talent especially, in those whom fortune has placed at an humble distance below them?—when any portion of that popular attention which they have fondly supposed belongs, as an exclusive property, to their exalted birth and high education, is claimed and extorted by some mere child of incident and nature—who has neither the patent of birth, nor the certificate of education to recommend him?—and who, nevertheless, has too much independence to waste the torch enkindled at heaven's own fires in the smoke and incense of subserviency and adulation?

That men there are, also, such as the text describes, "who hate the superiority of virtue still more than that of birth and property," is equally a lamentable truth. They are to be found in all ranks, in all parties, and under all denominations. There is, perhaps, no other species of superiority, when it happens to manifest itself, which has so many and such bitter haters. Such men, not only when they come on the scenes of revolution, but when they burst into any popular assembly, or mingle in any discussion designed for the public good, come indeed "like furies, and breathe nothing but discord and distrust." But all who breathe distrust of popular or party leaders, are not necessarily of this description. Unlimited confidence is not the necessary virtue of an honest patriot: nor are even exalted rank and more exalted name, indisputable pledges of unassailable integrity. Experience of the past does not justify the conclusion—either that every profession is necessarily sincere, at the time when it is made; or that the sincerity with which it was professed, is an indubitable guarantee for the fulness of after performance. The good that was intended when the power was only in prospect, is sometimes rendered powerless by the very possession of power; and the most disinterested patriot may, sometimes doubt whether he should encourage or alarm the confidence of a trusting public.

Yet he who is doubted, will persuade himself that he is injured; and, in the irritability of that persuasion, will seek for, and will apply the harshest and the worst of motives his suspicions can suggest, to the opponent who has questioned his. We would recommend to the noble author a revision of these paragraphs, with a stroke or two of more distinct discrimination, before he proceeds to a second edition. It were pity, that in any part of so valuable a work, and breathing as it does so many noble sentiments, he should either misunderstand himself, or be misunderstood.

With the consideration of the French Revolution, he mingles that of Spain; and makes them part of a general argument. The justice of the following reflections will scarcely be called in question.

"I have said that the government of Spain pushed the theory of despotism to its furthest consequences, and prohibited knowledge with an intuitive instinct that knowledge was its worst enemy. But the remedy which excluded the disease killed the patient. All virtue, all activity, all industry, languished for want of excitement. The blast of the Inquisition, like the fire of Vesuvius, seized a people at their occupation, and fixed them for ever motionless, and lifeless to the place at which it found them. The Spaniards were stopped in their progress to civilization, and the beginning of the nineteenth century found them as little advanced in the arts of life as they had been at the end of the sixteenth. In this general constraint (alluding to the tyranny of the Inquisition) every thing languished; the earth was untilled, manufactures neglected; there were no canals, few roads passable for carriages, no political knowledge, no attempt at improvement. But worse than this, every thing like virtue was undermined in all but the very lowest orders, by the corruption of a government despotic and feeble. Hence there was no strength in the armies, no vigour in the councils, no honesty among the aristocracy, no energy in the public mind of Spain.

"Thus it was proved, that if in France a despotic government was overthrown by the progress of knowledge, in Spain a despotic government destroyed itself by the exclusion of knowledge. A people that is instructed destroys its despotism: a despotism that prevents instruction ruins the people which obeys it. Thus in modern Europe either a nation shakes off arbitrary monarchy, or arbitrary monarchy wastes and consumes the independent existence of a nation."

As arising out of the pretences suggested by the French Revolution, and

connected with the subject of other revolutions attempted (and perhaps impending), the author next proceeds to examine *the New Law of Nations*; of which the text is thus stated from the manifesto issued by the Emperor of Germany and the King of Prussia, August 4, 1792.

"The supreme authority in France being perpetual and indivisible, the king could neither be deprived nor voluntarily divest himself of any of the prerogatives of royalty, because he is obliged to transmit them with his own crown to his successors."

"He could be dethroned only by an abdication." "The essential condition of the validity of such an act would be a full and entire liberty, which did not exist, and which it is perfectly notorious his most Christian Majesty never enjoyed."

"The manifesto of the Duke of Brunswick was in strict conformity with the theory of his masters; and death was threatened to all who adhered to the government of their own country, in preference to a monarch seated on the throne by a foreign enemy. Every one knows the fate of the Duke of Brunswick's army; the doctrine of the allies, which, if successful, would have subverted all law and liberty, was swept away along with it."

If the paragraphs that immediately follow be acceptable to the political historian, the first in order will be scarcely less so to the critic in polite literature, for the ingenious and eloquent parallel it draws between Rousseau and Edmund Burke: a parallel so provokingly just as one would almost think sufficient to make "the philosopher" (as he has been called) of Beaconsfield start from his shroud in one of his metaphorical exacerbations of indignant fury.

"Unhappily, England joined, though doubtingly and tardily, in this crusade. She was influenced to do so by a great orator and great writer, who was not extremely unlike the apostle of the French revolution. For there are some points of resemblance between Rousseau and Burke. Both were men whose imagination outstripped their judgment; both had the faculty of dressing their thoughts in the most harmonious style ever employed in their respective languages. If Burke is more rich in imagery, Rousseau is more fraught with feeling; if Burke surprises and carries away by his splendid diction, Rousseau seems more natural, and has been more successful in contriving that art, which does so much, should appear to do nothing. Both Rousseau and Burke exalted the idols of their own fancy; Rousseau painted with brilliant colours an age of savage simplicity which in his sober hours he knew never had existed: Burke took for his

his favourite illusion the happiness of an age of chivalry, whose best features live only in romance. The one called upon the world in its manhood to regret that period of its infancy when arts were unknown, and the hides of wild beasts were the only covering for the body; the other endeavoured to restore and to preserve the remains of the dark and dismal times of the middle ages, when Europe was barbarous and miserable. Yet both these authors could call to their assistance the soundest maxims of reason; the most profound doctrines of philosophy: Rousseau availed himself of sentiments which nature inspires, and good sense approves; Burke combined with his most extravagant speculations, the most solemn decisions of law, and the practical lessons which a long contest for liberty had taught to an enlightened nation. Thus each had a people for his proselytes, I fear I must add, his victims. France, seduced by the visions of the Swiss philosopher, sunk into the most abominable vices in attempting to realize an unattainable pitch of virtue: England, rousing at the trumpet of the Irish orator, made war upon a neighbouring country, because their people had become too frantic and too wicked to be amicably treated with. Thus, at the close of the eighteenth century, when the oracles of Delphi were laughed at, the leaves of the Sybil considered fabulous, and our rude ancestors despised for following the call of Peter the Hermit; death and havoc made their harvest in every quarter of the world, because the two most enlightened nations of Europe abandoned themselves to the guidance of two splendid enthusiasts, of whom the one was evidently insane, and the other totally wanting in sound discretion.

"I must now pass over an eventful period. The war between the revolution and the old monarchies, after lasting a few years, suddenly changed its shape, and became a contest between one man at the head of France, and the rest of Europe, led by England. For twenty years, Napoleon Bonaparte made the destiny of the civilized world. His life will stand in history, like an isthmus between two great ages, and not less memorable than either of them. The great genius of this extraordinary man was sufficient, in his time, to occupy the political mind of Europe; to assist or oppose his projects was the occupation of the bravest hearts, the wisest heads, of all the states of Europe. Now that he has been withdrawn, every state is busy with its own peculiar constitution, and every individual is at work on his own peculiar project, or his own special aggrandizement.

"The pacification of Vienna was not likely long to arrest the tide of reform which was setting in rapidly upon Europe.—Founded upon the narrowest basis of the interests of each particular sovereign, it seemed rather a compact of a few feudal lords transferring their slaves, than the

long promised deliverance of Europe, effected by mighty sovereigns. The monarchs, and their ministers, seemed to imagine that they had got rid of the people, and popular revolutions for ever, and had nothing more to do than to divide the spoil. They distributed among themselves territories and towns, and the souls of men, as if it were so much gold and silver which they had captured as lawful plunder.

"The revolutions of Spain and Naples, however, roused the Allied Monarchs from their stupor, and obliged them to disclose their real intentions towards the people of Europe. These are to be gathered from their declarations with regard to Spain and Naples; the latter, especially, being a weak power, they did not hesitate to disclose at once all their sentiments towards her.

"The following then may be stated as the principal articles of the new law of nations.

1. The monarchial principle rejects every institution which is not determined upon, and accomplished by the monarch himself of his own free will.—

2. 'The Allied Powers 'exercise an undoubted right when they consider of measures of precaution against states in which the overthrow of the government effected by rebellion, even considered as an example, must give occasion to a hostile attitude.'—

3. The powers have a right of declaring a 'spirit of discontent and bitterness, dispositions hostile to their government, and a passionate desire of political innovation,' existing 'amidst all classes of people,' in a foreign nation, to be the work of 'a sect working in the dark,' the changes which result from it, 'a revolt;' and institutions sanctioned by a national parliament to be 'no less in contradiction to the character than to the wants' of that foreign nation.—

4. 'The powers have a right 'to put an end by a common effort to the result of such changes.'

"While the sovereigns put forth this new system of international law, they at the same time declared they were friendly to the introduction, in a legal manner, of 'institutions conformable to the progress of civilization and the wants of the age.' The whole of their doctrine, however, with respect to the legal manner of introducing new institutions, is contained in the last circular dispatch, dated from Laybach, and expressed in a manner which, if not clear, is yet intelligible."

For the curious specimens of royal logic contained in this notorious document, we refer our readers to the memoir itself, p. 56, &c. A single paragraph, as comprising in fact, the essence of the whole, shall suffice for our purpose.

"Useful

"Useful or necessary changes in legislation, and in the administration of states, ought only to emanate from the free will and the intelligent and well-weighed conviction of those whom God has rendered responsible for power."

"Before I proceed," says our author, "to examine the new code, it may be well to mention, that the Diet of Frankfort, consisting of ministers from all Germany, the peculiar land of the law of nations, made a voluntary declaration respecting this last paper, 'that they were of one mind in revering in all its parts the beautiful monument of their equity and love of order, which these sovereigns have erected for the permanent consolation of all well-intentioned men.'" Surely it is time to examine closely the scope of a practical doctrine promulgated by sovereigns who command a million of armed men, and approved of by the representatives of the jurists of Europe.

"In the first place then, it is the evident tendency of this new law of nations, to prevent the improvement of mankind precisely where that improvement is most required. We have seen that kings, if entrusted with an unlimited prerogative, are liable to a more than a common share of human error and weakness. But on a par with their ignorance and debasement will be their resistance to rational innovation; and thus as a direct corollary from the new code, it follows that a king will retain his absolute power in proportion to his unfitness to exercise it, and that he is to have at his disposal the lives and properties of millions of human beings, simply because he is incapable of conducting a good government, and totally deprived of the knowledge, benevolence, and vigour necessary to reform a bad one."

"What is called the monarchical principle therefore is, an expedient for closing all bright prospects of improvement to the human race, a provision for perpetual despotism, a law for eternal ignorance, a decree on the part of the sovereigns of Europe to prevent all hope of redemption from the rule of tyranny, bigory, and vice. It can be compared to nothing but the vision of the genius of the Stormy Cape supposed to have appeared to the adventurous *Vasco di Gama*, and forbidden, with dreadful menaces, all further progress in the discovery of new seas, and the unclosing of new prospects to mankind."

Having examined with equal freedom "the pure and generous principles" of the magnanimous Alexander's state paper of remonstrance to the Spaniard's and the undisguised assumption of Prince Metternich's Austrian manifesto, or letter to Baron Berstett, in which he complains of some German Princes

having given constitutions to their people, and advises not only a steadfast adherence to what is established, but the recovery of what has been lost, our author thus proceeds:—

"While the means proposed by the sovereigns are thus inefficient for the purpose of promoting improvement, they are mighty and almost irresistible for the purpose of preventing it. If a people worn out by suffering, at length rise against their rulers, and demand a constitution in the only way it can be demanded with effect, *videlicet*, in arms, the allied monarchs have a million of troops ready to restore despotic authority. The troops of the three great combined powers are always prepared to march to the assistance of any despotic monarch who may have lost his power by cruelty, or bigotry, or vice.

"Let us now pass to the consequences that flow from the adoption of principles so absurd and tyrannical. They are, as might have been expected, in contradiction to the maxims of common sense, dangerous to the repose of Europe, hostile to the rights of nations, and lead directly to a general confusion of all interests, laws, principles, and securities. A nation is to be incapable of deciding for itself upon its own grievances and wants. A sovereign at a thousand miles distance is to pronounce an infallible judgment upon them. A congress is to be held in Moravia or Carinthia or Lombardy, to discuss what are the best remedies for the abuses of power at Naples or Madrid. Three absolute sovereigns are to decide infallibly on the various forms and regulations of free government. The cabinets of Vienna, St. Petersburg, and Berlin, are to be entitled to judge, without appeal, of the real sentiments of the people at Genoa and Cadiz. Armies of Croats and Cossacks are to be marched from the most savage parts of the globe, to reform civilized nations, and put down in all extremities of Europe the example of revolution effected by military force. Excommunication, forfeiture, servitude, and proscription, are the penalties to be pronounced against legislative assemblies which do not conform in their political institutions to the standard of Muscovy, Brandenburg, and Bohemia.

"It is impossible to say how far such a doctrine as this may be carried. The present sovereigns of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, are not immortal. It is quite uncertain whether their successors may not have still more extravagant notions of the omnipotence of legitimate monarchy, and the duty of passive obedience; but with the example of their progenitors before them, they can entertain no doubt of the justice of forcing their opinions on other nations at the point of the bayonet. Nations, on the other hand, desirous of becoming, or remaining free, will find that they have no chance of success unless they

can excite the subjects of despotic monarchs to ask at the same time for liberal institutions. Their only hope of remaining in peace at home will be to excite insurrection abroad. Thus the whole family of Europe will be engaged in a dreadful species of hostilities, marked with all the calamities of civil war. Blood will flow not only in the field, but on the scaffold, and the victorious party will join the insolence of a foreign enemy, to the rancour of a domestic faction. Such is the melancholy prospect which the mistaken policy of the allies opens to Europe. They are about to renew the scenes of horror with which the bigotry of Philip the II. and Charles the IXth afflicted mankind during the progress of the Reformation."

From the free quotations we have thus made; and especially from the last paragraph, it is apparent, and an attentive reference to the work itself will render it still more conspicuous, that the noble author contemplates a long and sanguinary struggle, and the ultimate breaking up of all the established governments and systems of government in Europe, as among the probable consequences of the arbitrary principles and measures of the federation of despots, commonly called the Holy Alliance; and under this impression, naturally enough proceeds to the consideration of the various schemes of revolution and government, that may eventually be meditated or attempted.

With the habits of mind and association, necessarily resulting from the rank and station of the imputed author, and avowedly considering property as the basis upon which the governments of the respective states of Europe rest, it is natural that he should contemplate with sufficient horror the idea of a democratic revolution. This abhorrence does not, however, betray him into any intemperance of invective or denunciation. He treats the subject quite as coolly as from the prejudices of rank could be expected; and, although we are of opinion that the picture, in some of its features, is a little overcharged, and very much suspect that no small part of the injustice and cruelty to which it is represented that one description of persons would be thereby exposed, is at this very time inflicted upon other classes by the corruptions and partialities of existing systems,* yet are

we by no means disposed to enter into controversy upon these points. We have no greater taste for democratic revolution than his Lordship; and perfectly agree with him, that the results of past experiments offer but little encouragement to the idea of their repetition.

But proceeds his Lordship:—

"On the other hand what do the agents of the old arbitrary monarchies propose to themselves by their obstinate resistance to the spirit, the sense, and knowledge of the age? Do they believe they can stop the progress of man towards civilization? That they can debar the people of Europe from representative governments and a free press, any more than they can conceal from them a knowledge of gas-lights, stage-coaches, and cheap cottons? Do they suppose that any inquisition which the humanity of this age will bear can prevent the ardent youth of the present generation from reading Locke, Montesquieu, Voltaire, and Rousseau? But even this would be insufficient; they must prohibit Plato, Demosthenes, Thucydides, Cicero, and Livy. They must make brave men, cowards; learned men, ignorant; active men, indolent; honest men, knaves; before they can hope to succeed in the task of giving to baseness, ignorance, imbecility, and depravity, the government, of the rest of mankind. They must annihilate England, cut off all intercourse with America, and obliterate history itself before they can finally and completely succeed. But this is impossible. Men are not now to be debarred from reading and thinking; and wherever there is a man who reads, and thinks, there they will have an enemy. Wherever there is a society, or a club, called by whatever name, and for whatever purpose brought together, there they will find a band of adversaries. Warned by their common danger, the friends of knowledge, of humanity, and of freedom, will unite together, and recognise each other by the signs of their common feeling for the dignity of human nature. At the approach of a danger which menaces to swallow up all we have, and all we hope for in this world, the prudent will become enterprising; the tranquil will be agitated; the moderate impetuous; the loyal, rebels. Sooner than allow the dark ages to return, thousands, and tens of thousands are ready to sacrifice their lives with joy. They will ask for no peace but accompanied with freedom. They will watch by night and fight by day. They will organize resistance in their

* The charge for example of "beggaring millions," perhaps might easily be brought nearer home, and with less appearance of exaggeration against the oligarchy system, which grinds down the unrepresented classes

of the community, than even against a democratic revolution. They were not the millions who were beggared by the French revolution, how hard soever may have been the lot of many hundreds.

their convivial meetings, and make conspiracy their profession and their pleasure. The sympathies of good men will fill their magazines with arms, and the renown of having saved their country from slavery, will be the only honours and titles to which they will aspire. What shall withstand men to whom freedom shall make victory doubly dear, and the love of glory shall render death indifferent?

"But even if the contest should end as the wars of the Reformation ended by the triumph of one party in some countries and of the other in others, what will the sovereigns who shall have preserved their arbitrary power have gained? The countries where reform triumphs will have the advantage which England and Holland in the seventeenth century had over Spain and Italy. Success in excluding what are called revolutionary doctrines will be accompanied by the loss of national strength and national importance. The nations which are not sufficiently enlightened to admit freedom into their government, or too corrupt to check the abuses which despotism has engendered, must be contented to sit on a lower form among the powers of Europe. It was by succeeding in all their objects, by repressing innovation, by extirpating opposition, that the government of Spain effected the ruin of their country, and reduced that mighty empire to poverty and insignificance. In the same way the ministers of the despotic states of Europe, in preserving absolute power to their masters, are preparing the cup of bitterness to the nations they misgovern."

The quotations we have made from this introduction to the Memoirs before us, will sufficiently evince both the ability with which it is written, and the spirit of liberality that breathes through it. Many axioms and sentences of comprehensive pith and point might also be selected from it worthy of being treasured in remembrance. Thus to the objection, that certain countries which have been long oppressed by tyranny have become unfit for liberty, it is answered that—

"It would indeed be a hopeless case for mankind if despotism were thus allowed to take advantage of its own wrong, and to bring the evidence of its crimes as the title-deeds of its right."

And again :—

"When I am asked if such a nation is fit to be free, I ask in return, Is any man fit to be a despot?"

Upon the subject of the violences and outrages of rebellion and revolution, we have the following candid and judicious observation.

"Undoubtedly upon the heads of those who provoke a people to rebellion must fall the crimes of that rebellion; he who

gives an example of cruelty and injustice must not complain if it rebounds upon himself."

And the following reflection upon the same subject is as just as it is liberal.

"Let it be observed, moreover, that the excesses of a people in revolution are marked down, and magnified; they spread indefinite alarm at the time, and are recorded to future ages. The crimes of despotism, on the other hand, are the greater part of them performed in darkness; the same hand which takes the life of the patriot, arrests the pen of the historian. The surface of despotism is smooth; the world knows not how many victims are languishing in its prisons, or how many of its subjects are swept away by its unjust decrees. Thousands of human beings may have sacrificed their lives to the fears of a tyrant, and no one have known it; let a revolution take place, and a convicted conspirator suffer without the forms of law, the whole world resounds with complaint and indignation."

We have confined ourselves to the introductory part of the work, as most important; though that which follows may be most amusing.

GREECE, in 1823 and 1824.

WHEN, in our Magazine for Dec. [Vol. 58, No. 403, p. 456,] we noticed the letters of Col. Stanhope, and paid them the tribute of applause to which they were entitled, we promised such further extracts for our Supplement, as might tend to illustrate the affairs and prospects of Greece. We proceed with pleasure to the fulfilment of that engagement; for we agree completely with Colonel Stanhope, that "the name of Greece is calculated to awaken in every bosom, feelings of the most pleasurable and improving (we should add, also, of the most animating) kind:" and we sympathize no less in the exultation that

"Roused from the apathy of their long-borne suffering, they at once burst asunder the massy chains with which their tyrants had loaded them, and, strong in the majesty of regenerated freedom, Greece once more lifted up her head;" that "her infidel oppressors fled before her newly-awakened and irresistible energies, and in the course of a single campaign, the surface of Greece was almost entirely freed from the locusts who had so long devastated her plains."

A passage in the VIIIth, and another in the IXth letter, may be admitted as illustrative in some degree of the cautious and calculating policy both of the Russian and British nation (as *nations*) with respect to this Christian struggle of freedom against Turkish tyranny and oppression: happily, however, in the latter,

(though there are calculating selists enough there also) there are *individuals* who can act independently, upon more generous principles. First, for the impression the conduct of our own government has made upon the mind of Europe.

"A notion seems to prevail on the continent that England has a selfish policy in view towards Greece. I have endeavoured to impress a contrary conviction, founded on our interest. So long as Greece could be kept down by the Porte, the British government sanctioned her oppression. But the moment she freed herself, and the question was whether she was to become a substantive state or to be added to Russia, no doubt could remain on the mind of any statesman: for it never could be the interest of England to increase that vast empire by adding to her wealth, and raising her into an important naval power."

The other passage (p. 29) will shew that in Russia also, however jesuitically cautious may be the conduct of the autocrat and his cabinet, there are hearts that can be interested in the Grecian cause.

"You may rely on the following fact. Since the year 1817 there has been a society established at Moscow, the object of which has been to revolutionize Greece. The president's name is Nicolo Paximali. One of its members, named Anastasio Jorgoglio, contributed 25,000 rubles. There was, however, another party of Greeks who were opposed to the society, and who wished to check its progress. This faction persuaded Jorgoglio that he had acted foolishly in giving the money, as it would not be advantageously expended; and the young man, being defective in judgment, acceded to their counsels, and called on the Committee to restore it. The president told him that it was despatched, and that it was not in his power to do so. Jorgoglio, resolved to reclaim it, applied to the government of Moscow to interpose their authority. Paximali explained that it was a voluntary gift, devoted to the service of his country. The government of Moscow declared that they could not decide the question, and referred it to St. Petersburg. The answer ultimately received was, that if the intentions of the Committee were not hostile to the Russian government, they were at full liberty to promote the interests of their country."

With respect to the Greeks themselves, the above extract will shew, that even in exile, they are not without their intrigues and factions. The following extract from the tenth letter will shew what they were at home.

"Lord Byron, Colonel Napier, all, in fact, concur in representing the executive

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body as devoid of public virtue, and actuated by avarice or low ambition. The legislative body have always acted with great discretion. The armies and navies are ill spoken of by all Europeans: they, however, possess this redeeming quality, they are invariably successful. The primates have many of them exercised power under the Turks, and are, generally, vicious and devoid of honour. The clergy are illiterate, and not distinguished for their morality. But what is most important is the character of the people. They are said to possess many of the vices of Asiatic nations; but they are sensible, shrewd, discriminating, anxious to acquire knowledge, and attached to the legislative body. M. Paraidi, Mavrocordato's secretary, called on me yesterday. He told me that Colocotroni had filled Napoli di Romania with his friends; that the legislative assembly had, in consequence quitted it, and had settled at Argos. The executive body adhered to Colocotroni. I told the secretary, that while the government remained in this state of anarchy, they could expect no loan."

The ensuing letter records (p. 34, date 28 Nov.) a naval victory of the Greeks.

"The following account of a naval victory may be relied on. The Greek fleet, consisting of nine vessels, commanded by Miaulis, attacked eleven Turkish ships, near the Island of Skiatho. They fought for six hours. The result was glorious to the Greeks, who took one corvette of twenty-four guns, three brigs, and one transport. Two of the remaining ships they burnt, four they drove on shore, and one only escaped."

A little further on, Colonel S. shews that the Greeks can fight by land also, as well as by sea.

"The first defence of Missolonghi, with only 300 men, was wonderful, and its successful result most important. This fortress has now some works, and its second defence, therefore, is less extraordinary. The Turks attacked it with 24,000 men. They lost by wounds and sickness 3000. The defence of Anatolico, which is in the neighbourhood, was also admirable. Previous to the siege of this place, it had always been supplied with water from a distance. During the siege, however, a shell fell in the centre of the place, and out gushed a spring of water, from which the inhabitants have ever since been supplied. Whether this is a miracle or a falsehood, priests and historians must decide."

We will bring together some other instances of what may perhaps be called the fierceness of Grecian valour; the more especially as the sceptical or insidious part of the daily press is rather fond of depreciating (perhaps in its mere ignorance) in this respect, the Grecian character

'A Turkis

"A Turkish brig was pursued by a number of Greek ships on the 10th, and, after a gallant running fight, driven on a rock near Ithaca. The Greeks rifled the sinking ship, and pursued forty-eight Turks who sought a refuge on the shore. Some were killed; some escaped. The brig had 250,000 piastres on board, for the payment of the soldiers at Patras. Letters addressed to Usuff Pacha, the commandant, and others, stated that the troops had had no pay for eighteen months, and that the Porte, during that period, had not given them wherewithal to pay the barbers for shaving them. Usuff Pacha's bills, for the payment of provisions, had been rejected at Constantinople. The commandant of Coron applied to the Porte for cannoneers and ammunition. The reply was, that they had not cannoneers even to supply the fleet; but that they would send a supply of ammunition.

"On the 10th December, a Greek vessel with twenty men, attacked a Turkish vessel with seventy men on board. The latter was proceeding from Patras to Prevesa, with persons who had fled on account of the disorders which prevail at Patras. The fight was so obstinate that the Turkish vessel went down: seven men were taken up and saved, and some reached the shore, but most of them were killed."

What a picture does the former of these narratives exhibit of the helpless and exhausted state of the Turkish Empire. Should (which is not unlikely) the Pacha of Egypt, seize the tempting occasion for revolt, how near to its dissolution must be that gorgeous and detestable despotism. The vulture, however, is ready to prey upon the carcase.

In p. 57, we have further illustrations of this state of things.

"The troops of the Pacha of Scutari, that retired from Missolonghi, have been refused provisions by the Albanians, and have lost many men in fighting to obtain them. Sili-dar Poda has revolted against Omer Pacha, declaring that he will acknowledge none but Ismael Bey, the grandson of Ali Pacha, as governor of Albania. Aga Mouhourdar, another influential chief, has also declared for Ismael Bey. Omer Pacha has quitted Prevesa to attack these two chiefs, and that place and Arta are left defenceless. In a word, the Albanians are engaged in a civil war favourable to Greece; and the Pacha of Scutari will not be tempted to make another journey to Missolonghi."

The XIIth letter introduces us to Prince Mavrocordato, whom Colonel S. found "surrounded with military chiefs, primates, and others," and develops Colonel Stanhope's views of the desiderata for the final success of Grecian liberation.

"I then spoke of a constitutional force, and said that we had derived the great features of our military system from the Greeks and Romans; and I regretted that while they preserved the heroic spirit of their ancestors, they neglected to cultivate that system of close co-operation which distinguished their phalanxes, and gave them such a decided superiority over their foreign enemies. I then adverted to the establishment of a free press, of posts, of hospitals, of schools, &c. I endeavoured to represent the fatal effects of the disunion which prevails in the government, and which injures public credit, commerce, and all amicable connexions, and is calculated to excite the ambition and to promote the success of their enemies. I strongly urged the necessity of attacking Patras, the Castles, and Lepanto, the conquest of which would secure the Morea, deprive the enemy of the Gulph, and probably put the Turkish fleet in their possession. The means which I proposed for their adoption were these, namely, 1,000 irregulars, a corps of five German artillery-men, six twelve or eighteen pounders, two bombs, and Parry, with his infernal fires."

Nor does Colonel S. neglect the opportunity here or elsewhere of evincing how completely he regards Mr. Bentham, not only as "the very chiefest of the apostles" of liberty, but as the writer whose pen, if the issues of it can but be freely diffused through the medium of translation among the people of Greece, is to be as potent for their emancipation as arms and loans and "Parry's infernal fires." We find him accordingly in Letter XV, &c. &c. full of activity in establishing the press, arranging and urging to publication the Greek Chronicle, which was to be commenced on the first day of the year 1824, and rendered the organ both in Greek and Italian of the Bentham principles of constitutional liberty. In the same letter, however, in which he states that "Messolonghi is quiet, and Mavrocordato, the primates and the people, are well disposed to further good measures," he likewise adds

"In the Morea I am informed that little or nothing can be done; but of this I am by no means convinced. "*Nous verrons.*" The administration of the police is in the hands of the Primates and the Capitani, or rather justice exists not at all. Feudalism prevails in all its wilderness."

Colonel S.'s solicitude about the press, as the following extract will shew, mingles with every thing. And who shall censure this? Who does not perceive that when the two great interests of political freedom and national independence, are concentrated in one focal point

point of action, the engine of most popular excitement and information, is, in fact, the most potent engine of the war?

"Events change every moment. The Turkish fleet is retiring into port.—Since I last addressed you, I have had another hot fight in defence of the press. Dr. Meyer called on me to say that Bentham's remarks could not appear in the prospectus. I told him that they must, or I would retire from my connection with him and his press. They have appeared. You will judge of the importance of the impression which this passage must make on men about to legislate on the measure, and on the measure, and on a people about to stare and wonder at something new.

"The legislative body is settled at Cranidi, opposite to Spetzia. There they may deliberate safely. Ulysses has taken Karisto, in Negropont. No place of strength now remains there in the hands of the Turks but the capital."

What follows is already familiar to the public: but what pen can dip into the record of this epoch of the struggle of Grecian liberty, and leave unregarded an incident connected with the name of Byron.

"Lord Byron's two servants have just arrived here, and have brought me a letter from his Lordship. He and Count Gamba set off in two vessels from Cefalonia. They went to Zante, and thence proceeded for Missolonghi, with their bills of lading made out for Calamata. Just as they were coming into port, out came the Turkish fleet, Gamba was taken by a frigate, and conveyed to Patras. The Zante Government will demand his restoration, and that of our press, &c. Lord Byron had a narrow escape. He got into Scrofus, a little island, a few hours' sail. Thither I have sent two armed boats, and a company of Suliots, so that he may come by sea or land, as he pleases. He will be here to-morrow. If he had not come, we had need have prayed for fair weather: for both fleet and army are hungry and inactive."

The XXI Letter, 3d Jan. 1824, gives an account of the meeting of the primates and Capitani of Western Greece in the yard of the seraglio at Missolonghi, and the conciliatory speech of Prince Mavrocordato, which congratulates "the patriot warriors who had driven the enemy with great loss from their soil, and thereby saved Missolonghi and Peloponesus from pestilence, death and ruin; and exhorts them to like patriotic union among themselves. It states also the orderly proceedings and admirable conduct of the assembly; but, a little farther on, (p. 68, as frequently in former

letters) gives a very different picture of another branch of the State.

"The executive, after much fencing, have at last had a fray with the legislative body. The story is as follows: The legislative body expelled Count Metaxa from the executive, for absenting himself from his duties without permission, and leaving only two members, who could not form a quorum, to pass laws, &c. They then named a successor. The minister of finance was, in like manner, displaced, for having, without any authority, established a salt-monopoly: four representatives were also dismissed for not attending their duties when called on, at Napoli, to do so. The executive, irritated at these acts of justice, sent Niketas and young Colocotroni, with two hundred men, to Argos, to explain matters. On their arrival they proceeded to the house of assembly. The members had just terminated their sitting. Two of them, in going out, met this armed body, and conducted them into the senate, which was soon filled with soldiers. They were questioned as to their conduct in removing Metaxa and the finance minister from their offices. They, in reply, contended against the neglect of sacred duties, monopolies, and arbitrary power. Niketas then said, he would make the law with his sword, and have a military government. It was at length agreed, that the assembly should meet to consider the message in the afternoon. Meanwhile the soldiers siezed the archives of the legislative body. The moment the members heard of this outrage, they ordered the Capitani, at the head of the police, to recover the archives. This order was obeyed with admirable courage and address.

The executive body is hateful to the people: they wished not to see a monopoly of power; but a monopoly of salt came still more home to their feelings. They rose in favour of their representatives. The tyrants retired. The legislative body then removed to Cranidi. There they issued a proclamation, protesting against this lawless act, and threatening to prosecute the violators of the constitution. The people of Hydra, the great naval state, have addressed both bodies in a becoming strain on this subject, and the assembly here will follow the example. Two days before the receipt of this intelligence, Colocotroni addressed several of the Capitani at Missolonghi, and called upon them to meet him at Gastouni, to form an efficient military government. The letter was read aloud at the general assembly. The people murmured, and not a voice was raised in favour of the proposition."

The ensuing letter informs us, that "After Zukaropulo had recovered the archives, by direction of the legislative body, the troops sought Londres. Fortunately for him, he was out, but they pillaged his house. The members of the legislative body

body then assembled at the vice-president's house, and resolved to defend themselves there. The troops retired; and, on the following day, the famous Colocotroni made his appearance. He cursed the senators, and called them all Turks. Two days after this, on the 12th of December, the executive met some of the members of the legislative body near Napoli. The former declared themselves innocent of the affair at Argos." The postscript adds, "Lord Byron has this moment arrived. He was received with military honours and popular applause. His Lordship had a narrow escape, having passed close to a Turkish frigate. He thinks they must have taken his vessel for a *brûlot*. The sailors say his Lordship conducted himself with admirable coolness."

We will pursue this subject of the struggle between the Legislative and Colocotronian Executive.

"The congress here have done much good. They have agreed to limit their force to 2,500 men in Western Greece, which consists of twelve cantons. They have also resolved to nominate a military council of three, who are to remain with the government, and are to be the channel of communication between it and the army. All the revenues, instead of being seized by the Capitani for the payment of their troops, are to be placed in the coffers of the government. This will enable them to pay and control the army, and put the constitution in force. Eastern Greece has resolved to follow the measures adopted by the Congress at Missolonghi, and Ulysses will support them. Thus our prospect brightens. Eastern and Western Greece are united in the work of improvement, and the people in the Morea are disgusted with the salt-monopoly and the disunion which prevails amongst the chiefs, and in their government. The expedition to Lepanto will certainly take place. Lord Byron, who is soldier-mad, will accompany it with his 500."

"After the attack made upon the legislative body at Argos, and the attempt made to rob them of their archives, two proclamations have been issued by the executive. The first of these contained a defence of their conduct, but expressed no regret for what had happened; and the second called on the representatives of the nation to send deputies to confer with them, and to settle their differences. The legislative body, finding, however, that, under the mask of conciliation, the disorders went on encreasing, resolved on changing the members of the executive *in toto*. Colocotroni had, some time back, sent in his resignation; but this he was wont to do when in a sullen mood; Metaxa had been dismissed for absenting himself from his duties, and the other three members were, I trust, tried and judged singly, and ac-

ording to the language of the constitution. The newly chosen executive consists of Giorgio Conduriotti, the president; of Panioti Botesi, an admiral; of Jean Coletti, a clever but intriguing politician; and of Nicolo Londros, of Petras; the fifth member is not yet named. The islands approve these measures; and all here seem to entertain the same feeling."

When the new executive body were sworn in, every thing went on quietly; and the ex-members we are told, "when they received the account of their fall, felt like fish within the influence of a blazing light—amazed—stupified lost." There were factions it seems of many kinds, domestic and foreign—in Greece and for Greece; and many mouths were open for a crown. Mavrocordato it is more than suggested, could have relished one, but that a more moderate and more popular course, was better accommodated to the comparative mediocrity of his powers. "The Moreots," Dr. Tindall (just arrived from Athens) says, "are crying out for a king, but he must be a foreigner. Bernadotte is mentioned. Why not the Duke of Sussex?" Others, it seems, were for our Prince of Saxe-Cobourg. The Chevalier Mustoxidi (p. 16, 17,) thinks that Austria, England and Russia, might "place the son of the late King of Sweden on the throne of Greece." Colonel S. however thinks that "the Mogul, circumcised, and then baptised, might be quite as acceptable to the commonwealth." The republican star, it seems, is likely there to maintain the ascendant; and certainly there seems nothing in the proceedings of Colonel S. likely to bedim its influence; when the Russian Diplomatist accused him of a design to Anglicise the Greeks, "we would rather Americanise them!" was his frank reply. He has his fears, however (p. 100,) that "the sovereigns, in their great and infinite goodness, will send a ruler of their cast;" and that "if the Emperor of the North should send a rugged Russian bear, there are those that would embrace it."

But there is a subject in which the honour of this country (at least its generosity) is implicated, which we must not pass over in silence. We turn back therefore, to p. 72 for Colonel S.'s account of it.

"Sir T. Maitland has issued a proclamation, complaining of the conduct of some Greek ships. This document is couched in unbecoming language, and in a spirit of partiality and injustice. I will relate to you the circumstances of the two cases. "The

"The Greek fleet, in going from Hydra to Missolonghi, fell in with a Turkish brig near Scrofus. They chased her. She behaved gallantly, and at length ran on a rock near Ithaca. The Greeks sent a boat to seize and rifle their prize. The Turks made for the shore, and from the shore fired and killed Nichola Bulugo and wounded Pano Triandophilo, both Spetzioss. The Greeks upon this followed the Turks on shore, and killed and wounded some of them. The Greek commandants did all in their power to prevent their sailors from going on shore, and exerted themselves to hasten their return. The crime, therefore, of Turks and Greeks was nearly the same;—both violated the laws of neutrality and of quarantine. But Sir T. M. launches all his thunders against the Greeks, and talks of their having been commanded by "*un certo nominato Principe Mavrocordato*," but who did not command the fleet.

"The other case was that of a trader from Missolonghi, who took it into his head to attack a Turkish boat near Sta. Maura. Some of his men he put on shore, and so got his antagonists between two fires, and took four of them. On the return of the San Nicholas to Missolonghi, the government heard of the lawless conduct of this captain, and immediately prosecuting him as a pirate. Here again the law of nations and the quarantine laws were broken by a pirate. And for these acts Sir T. Maitland fulminates against the Greek nation. When will this man cease to persecute a people gloriously struggling for their lives and liberties?"

In his XXVII Letter, Colonel Stanhope gives the following account of the existing state of Greece.

Greece is divided into cantons and sub-cantons. The are under the immediate governments of prefects and sub-prefects. Each community elects a president, who is under the primate of the district, and both are directed by the sub-prefect. In every canton and sub-canton there is a court of justice. The prefect communicates with the minister of the home department. In each canton there is a secretary-general, a finance-minister, a war-minister, a naval-minister and captain of the port where required, and a minister of police. The sub-cantons have analogous establishments. Each community elects three persons, who represent the government, and act under the sub-prefect. There is a justice of the peace in each canton. In each sub-canton there is a court consisting of three judges or commercial, political, and criminal affairs. These courts are provisional. In each canton there is a tribunal of five, called *Tribunal des Armes*. The justice of the peace decides all matters not exceeding one hundred piastres: those under fifty piastres are not appealable. He also judges all petty cases of assault, and

all questions concerning irrigation. He cannot sentence to more than three months' imprisonment, and has the power of changing bodily punishment into a fine, which must not exceed 150 piastres. From these judgments there is no appeal. Each justice of the peace has a secretary and a registrar. No prosecution can take place without a written statement. All sentences must be given in public and in writing. If the parties are not satisfied with the sentence, they must immediately write down their intention to appeal on the brief. The first tribunals decide political, commercial, and criminal affairs, and, also, cases of appeal from the justices of the peace. In these courts all pleas and answers must be in writing; their sentences are not definitive, but are liable to revision by the Tribunals of Appeal. The Tribunals of Appeal judge all cases of appeal from the first tribunals. The sentences of these courts, on commercial and political affairs, not exceeding 4,000 piastres, are final; but, when they exceed that sum, an appeal lies to the General Tribunals of Greece. In criminal cases the sentences of the Tribunals of Appeal are not appealable, except sentence of decapitation be awarded, in which case, reference may be made to the General Tribunal. Each community has a notary, who must be approved by the government. All money contracts must be made in his presence, and both parties must come before him for that purpose. He must, also, attend those who wish to make their wills, and notify the physical and moral state of the testators."

In the same letter, follows an account of a military riot.

"Some Suliots insisted upon taking up their quarters in the house of burghur Resistance was made, and several persons were wounded. The fray over, a townsman went to Prince Mavrocordato to demand redress. Presently after, a corps of Suliots went to him, for the same purpose I met them on my road home from Dr. Meyer's. The burghur on his way was questioned by Dr. Meyer. He was narrating the events of the fray, when a Suliote passed, and shot him dead. The Prince assembled the military chiefs, and insisted on their delivering up the malefactors to justice. They shuffled, argued, and finally consented. Wonder not at this fray: wonder, rather, that 5,000 undisciplined, ill-paid, armed soldiers, from different quarters, should have been here nearly a month, should have consented to a reduction of their force, and should, under these circumstances, have departed without having been guilty of any outrage."

Lord Byron took 500 of these Suliots into his own pay, and became their chief. But they were found very untractable

tractable auxiliaries, as difficult to be got rid of as to keep in order; 500 it seems, receive rations for 1,200, which is a Turkish custom, very apt to mislead people with respect to the strength of their armies.

We pass over the petulancies and inconsistencies of Lord Byron on the subject of the liberty of the press, and his sparrings with Colonel Stanhope on that subject. Enough has been made of them in the daily prints. The XXX Letter offers sketches more worthy of remembrance.

"The Capitani being the most powerful and influential men in Greece, I will give you a short account of one of them, named Stonari. This chief lives at a village called Kutchino, near the river Aspropotamos, in Thrace. A portion of his property lies in the plain, and the rest in the mountains. He possesses about one hundred and twenty villages, and each of these contains, upon an average, about seventy families. The people of the mountains are chiefly occupied with their herds. Stonari himself has about 7 or 8,000 head of cattle, and his family altogether own about 5,00,000. They consist of horses, oxen, cows, sheep, and goats, but chiefly of the two latter. The flocks remain seven months in the mountains, and the rest of the year in the plains. The Capitano lets out his cattle to herdsmen, who are bound to give him two pounds of butter, two pounds of cheese, two pounds of wool, and one piastre. Each family has from fifty to one hundred and fifty head of cattle, and they generally clear a small tract of ground and cultivate it. They do not belong to Stonari, but are held by the cultivators, who pay one-third of their rent to the Turks, one-third to the Capitano, and one-third for the maintenance of the soldiers.

"The peasantry live ill. They have eighty-nine fast-days in the year, in addition to the regular fasts, which are every Friday, and Saturday. On other days they eat cheese, butter, and bread; and on Sundays and festivals meat. The women are treated like slaves, and perform all the hard labour. The Capitani and Primates pay little more respect to their wives than to their vassals. When a stranger appears, the women kiss his hand, and bring him water. They do not appear at table with their lords.

"The inferior Capitani, under Stonari, each receives the dues of three or four families, and each commands a certain number of men.

"The regular soldiers under Stonari amount to 400. He could muster 3,000 more from among the peasantry. They are paid only during three months in the year: the first class receive twenty piastres per month; the second, fifteen; and the third, twelve. They live well, and eat

twice a day bread and meat. They receive their rations from the owners of the houses where they dwell. They are furnished with ammunition, and hides to make shoes of from the Capitano, but they find their own arms and clothes. They are subjected to no military discipline or punishment, and can quit their chief at pleasure. When on a march, the officers of the villages through which they pass, must furnish them with quarters, and the owners of the houses where they lodge, must provide them with food and whatever they demand; if they do not, they are sure to be ill-treated. The troops cannot, however, remain above three or four days in the same village. There is a Primate in each village. These Primates are under the control of the Capitani, who are the princes of the country. Each village is generally provided with two or three priests, who receive from 100 to 600 piastres yearly. The people are very religious, and fear their pastors. There are several monasteries in Stonari's district, but no nunneries. In the Morea there are two nunneries. The Priests are not generally rich. Justice there is none. The Priests, the Primates, or the Capitani, decide arbitrarily in all cases. The wives of the soldiers remain in the villages during their husband's absence, to look after their families and flocks."

As the protracted abode of Colonel Stanhope at Missolonghi is drawing to a close, it is fit we should state, in his own words, the object of his mission.

"The first great object of the Greek Committee in England is to give that civil and military knowledge to Greek of which she has been deprived under the satanic government of the Turks."

And for all this, though other means were far from being neglected, Colonel S. seems to have had particular reliance on the influence of a free press; for the establishment of which he seems to have laboured with indefatigable enthusiasm, and relative to which, in p. 114, we find him thus exulting.

"The press now flourishes. When the good work commenced, all parties talked of its being inapplicable to a rude state of society, and other common places equally unfounded in reason and experience. Now all are interested about it, and may write for it: nay, such is the rage for it, that the English insist upon my leaving one of the presses, in order that they may publish a Frank newspaper here, for the islands, for England, and for America. Count Gamba is named as the editor: the articles will be in English, French, Italian, and German: the contributors, young men engaged in the cause. Lord Byron will contribute largely in both money and matter. The editor of the German Chronicle, with his usual liberality, has offered, for

90. a-year, to furnish 100 numbers weekly. He says he will publish it though it should be stuffed full of libels against himself."

On the 21st Feb. 1824, Colonel S. departed from Missolonghi on his way to Athens; and the notices of his tour, brief as they are, would be far perhaps, from the least amusing part of his correspondence; but that other matters are more in cue to our purpose.

On the 6th March he thus writes from Athens to Lord Byron.

"Yesterday, a public meeting took place, for the purpose of choosing three persons to serve as magistrates for Athens. The persons were named: their respective merits were canvassed, and they were then ballotted for, and chosen by universal suffrage. This day, another meeting took place for the purpose of choosing three judges; I attended the assembly held in the square, opposite the port. Odysseus, with others, was seated on the hustings. Opposite stands an old tree, surrounded with a broad seat, from which the magistrates addressed the people, explained the objects for which they were assembled, and desired them to name their judges. A free debate then took place, it lasted long, became more and more animated, and, at last, much difference of opinion existing, a ballot was demanded, and the judges were chosen.

"I have been constantly with Odysseus. He has a very strong mind, a good heart, and is brave as his sword; he is a doing man; he governs with a strong arm, and is the only man in Greece that can preserve order. He puts, however, complete confidence in the people. He is for a strong government, for constitutional rights, and for vigorous efforts against the enemy. He professes himself of no faction, neither of Ipsilanti's, nor of Colocotroni's, nor of Mavrocordato's; neither of the Primates, nor of the Capitani, nor of the foreign king faction. He speaks of them all in the most undisguised manner. He likes good foreigners, is friendly to a small body of foreign troops, and courts instruction. He has established two schools here, and has allowed me to set the press at work. He complains that the press of Missolonghi does not insert articles that do not suit the politics of the editor. He wishes every intelligent Greek in Europe to proceed to Greece; and wrote to Coray and others, a year back, to come to this country, to aid in the formation of their government, their laws, &c. These letters were not forwarded, owing to the dissensions which then reigned, but he will now despatch them, at my request. He thinks Bambas a most efficient patriot, and has agreed to address him, and to solicit his presence in Greece. In short, considering his education, his pursuits, and the society by which

he has been surrounded, he is a most extraordinary man.

"Odysseus is most anxious to unite the interests of Eastern and Western Greece, for which purpose he is desirous of immediately forming a congress at Salona."

Of this hero of modern Athens, he thus speaks again in his letter of the 11th to Mr. Bowring—

"The Chief Odysseus has been a mountain robber, has never bowed in bondage to the Turks, has served under Ali Pacha, has been chosen Governor of Eastern Greece, has refused to give up Athens to a weak government, and has lately sympathised with the people, and taken the liberal course in politics. He is a brave soldier, has great power, and promotes public liberty. Just such a man Greece requires."

The following passage will explain in some degree the state of parties with whose discords Greece has had to struggle, and may perhaps still have, as well as with Turkish tyranny.

"Greece is split into factions, which are enrolled into two great parties. The one consists of Mavrocordato, the islands, a large portion of the legislative body, of the Primates, and of the people. The other consists of Ipsilanti, Petrombey, Colocotroni, and the principal part of the soldiery, &c. Odysseus professes neutrality, but leans to the latter party. Mavrocordato is a good man, but cannot go straight. He is, secretly, for a mild monarchy. A thing as easy to be obtained in Greece as a mild tigerarchy. His followers mean differently, but mean well. Ipsilanti is, in mind and body, a slug, but still has shown more public virtue than any other man in Greece. His party are for military predominance and democracy. In short, the revolution has clubbed the Greeks. Still, I have no doubt that order will be restored, and that strength and liberty will be the result."

On this subject Colonel S. is still more explicit in his letter from Salona to Mr. Bentham (4th May).

"The state of Greece is not easily conveyed to the mind of a foreigner. The society is formed, 1st, of the Primates, who lean to oligarchy, or Turkish principles of government; 2dly, of the captains, who profess democratical notions, but who are, in reality, for power and plunder; and lastly, of the people, who are irreproachable in character, and of course desire to have a proper weight in the constitution. The people of the Peloponnesus are much under the influence of the civil and military oligarchies. Those of Eastern and Western Greece are chiefly under the captains. Of these Odysseus is the most influential. His father never bowed to the Turkish yoke; he was a freeman and a robber. Odysseus himself

himself was brought up by the famous tyrant Ali Pacha. He is shrewd and ambitious, and has played the tyrant, but is now persuaded that the road to fame and wealth is by pursuing good government. He, therefore, follows this course, and supports the people and the republic. Negris, who once signed his sentence of death, is now his minister. Of the islands, Hydra and Spezia are under the influence of some rich oligarchs, supported by the rabble, and Ipsara is purely democratic.

"The parties may be said to be three, 1st. There is Mavrocordato, the oligarchs of the islands, and some of those of the Peloponnesus, and the legislative body. These are for order and a mild despotism, either under a foreign king, or otherwise. This faction stood high, but must now change its principles or lose its power. 2dly, There is Colocotroni, and some of the captains, and some of the oligarchs of the Morea, who are for power and plunder. This party is going down hill at a gallop. And, 3dly, there is Ipsilanti, Odysseus, Negris, and the mass who are now beginning to embrace republican notions, finding that they cannot otherwise maintain their power."

VAN DIEMEN'S LAND.

Cannibalism.—On the 14th of June, Alexander Pierce, a convict, was tried at Hobart Town, for the murder of a fellow-prisoner, named Thomas Cox, in the month of November, 1823. He was found guilty, and hanged on the Monday after, previously to which he made the following horrible confession to a Catholic minister:

"I was born in the county of Fermanagh, in the north of Ireland. In the twenty-sixth year of my age, I was convicted of stealing six pairs of shoes, and received sentence to be transported for seven years. I arrived in Van Dieman's Land, on board the ship *Castle Forbes*, from Sydney; was assigned as servant to John Bellenger, with whom I remained about nine months; was then, from misconduct, returned to the government superintendent. A few months after, I was assigned to a man named Cane, a constable, and staid with him only sixteen weeks, when an occasion obliged him to take me before the magistrates, who ordered that I should receive fifty lashes in the usual way, and again be returned to crown labour. Afterwards, I was placed to serve a Mr. Scattergood, of New Norfolk, from whom I absconded into the woods, and joined Laughton, Saunders, Latten, and Atkinson, who were then at large; staid with them three months, and surrendered myself, by a proclamation issued by the Lieut. governor, and was pardoned. Shortly afterwards I forged several orders, upon which I obtained

property. On hearing the fraud was discovered, I was again induced to return into the woods. But, after three or four months, I was taken by a party of the 48th regiment, brought to Hobart Town, tried for the forgeries, found guilty, and sent to the Penal Settlement at Macquarie Harbour for the remainder of my sentence. I was not there more than a month before I made my escape with seven others, namely—Dalton, Traverse, Badman, Mathews, Greenhill, Brown, and Cornelius. We kept altogether for ten days, during which time we had no food but our kangaroo skin jackets, which we ate, being nearly exhausted with hunger and fatigue. On the eleventh night we began to consult what was best to be done for our preservation, and made up our minds to a dreadful result.

"In the morning we missed three of our companions—Dalton, Cornelius, and Brown, we concluded had left us with the intention of going back, if possible. We then drew cuts which of us five should die: it fell to Badman's lot. I went with one of the others to collect dry wood to make a fire, during which time Traverse had succeeded in killing Badman, and had begun to cut him up. We dressed part of the flesh immediately, and continued to use it as long as it lasted. We then drew cuts again, and it fell to the fate of Mathews. Traverse and Greenhill killed him with an axe, cut the flesh from his bones, carried it on, and lived upon it as long as it lasted. By the time it was all eat, Traverse, through fatigue, fell lame in his knee, so much so, that he could not proceed. Greenhill proposed that I should kill him, which I agreed to. We then made the best of our way, carrying the flesh of Traverse between us, in the hope of reaching the eastern settlements while it lasted. We did not, however, succeed, and I perceived Greenhill always carried the axe, and thought he watched an opportunity to kill me. I was always on my guard, and succeeded, when he fell asleep, to get the axe, with which I immediately despatched him, made a meal, and carried all the remaining flesh with me to feed upon."

[To cut short this tale of horrors, we will briefly add, that in spite of all these crimes, he was soon after in want of food, and subsisted many days on grass and nettle tops. At length he was taken, and returned to the Penal Settlement, but he escaped again with Thomas Cox; they quarrelled, and he killed Cox with an axe, ate part of him that night, and cut the greatest part of his flesh up to carry with him, but soon after his heart failed him, and he surrendered himself, carrying a piece of his confederate's flesh to the commandant, to shew that he was dead, and afterwards conducted a party to the place where he left his remains.]

METEOROLOGICAL ABSTRACT for the last Twelve Months,
At CARLISLE.

MONTH.	Thermometer.			Barometer.			Rain. Ins. Dcls.	Days of Rain, Snow, &c.	Winds.	
	Highest.	Lowest.	Mean.	Highest.	Lowest.	Mean.			West, S.W. S. & S.E.	East, N. E. N. & N.W.
January .	52	25	40.50	30.67	28.62	29.98	1.63	10	24	7
February .	50	28	40.00	30.50	28.90	29.80	.77	11	15	14
March ..	55	25	39.80	30.30	28.61	29.79	2.50	18	16	15
April....	68	25	45.60	30.58	29.10	29.88	.85	11	14	16
May	72	30	53.00	30.66	29.61	30.02	1.23	5	3	28
June....	78	41	56.00	30.47	29.40	30.00	2.23	9	6	24
July....	75	48	59.70	30.53	29.43	29.99	2.55	13	21	10
August..	70	41	57.80	30.48	29.42	29.92	2.95	13	18	13
September	75	29	55.60	30.32	29.20	29.86	3.85	17	21	9
October..	63	26	48.00	30.21	29.00	29.61	3.01	22	14	17
November	58	25	42.50	30.13	28.33	29.49	5.53	25	21	9
December	52	15	40.00	30.33	28.66	29.62	5.63	20	28	3
Annual Mean....			48.21	Annual Mean		29.83	32.73	174	201	165

*General Remarks on the Weather, &c.,
observed at Carlisle during the Year
1824.*

January.—The weather, during this month, was, on the whole, remarkably mild for the season; some short intervals of moderate frost occurred, but no snow fell here during the month, which is a very uncommon circumstance in this climate.

February.—Was a continuation of the same unseasonably mild weather experienced last month; the thermometer, excepting on the 5th, when it was 28°, was never so low as the freezing point. The weather was generally far; the quantity of rain little more than three quarters of an inch; in the latter part of the month, some light showers of hail and sleet.

March.—Was perfectly the reverse of the two preceding months: it was extremely cold, with frequent heavy falls of hail, snow, and sleet; the snow which fell here sometimes covered the ground for two or three days; the 2.50 inches in the column of rain is chiefly melted hail and snow; some intervals of severe frost occurred; on the morning of the 4th, the thermometer was 24°, and on the morning of the 31st 25°, and the average 39°8 is lower than either of the two preceding months. An immense quantity of snow appeared on the mountains, during the month.

April.—The weather continued most unseasonably cold, with strong parch-

ing winds and showers of snow, hail, and sleet, till the 10th, when the surrounding mountains were often perfectly white; we had some very intense frost, in the nights; on the 11th the thermometer was 25°, and frequently three or four degrees below freezing; the last twelve days were mild and pleasant, with light refreshing showers.

May.—The temperature of this month was remarkably variable—the first ten days were generally mild and pleasant; it afterwards continued very cold and ungenial till the 23d, and, on the mornings of the 21st and 22d, the thermometer was two degrees below freezing, and strong ice was observed; the remainder of the month was very mild and pleasant—the weather was, on the whole, very droughty.

June continued very droughty and unfavourable for the crops; the first eight days were extremely warm and brilliant; on the 8th the thermometer was as high as 78°: it afterwards was most unseasonably cold, and generally very gloomy, with strong parching easterly winds; on the 25th we had a very heavy rain, and also on the 29th, with thunder and vivid lightning. The average temperature 56° very low for the season.

July.—The weather, in these northern counties, during this month, was exceedingly favourable for the crops, the mild refreshing rains which fell in the former half of the month, and the very warm

and brilliant sunshine afterwards, gave us a prospect of an abundant harvest. The hay crop was very productive, and nearly secured at the end of the month.

August.—The first three weeks of this month were in general showery; on the 18th, thunder was heard at a distance, accompanied with heavy rain; the last ten days of the month were fair and extremely fine for the harvest, which commenced here about the middle of the month.

September.—The former part of this month was exceedingly sultry, with heavy showers; on the 2d, the thermometer, at noon, was 75° , and the average 68° ; in the night we had much thunder and lightning. In the latter part of the month we had some very fine weather, which, in this county, nearly finished a very abundant harvest. On the mornings of the 27th and 28th we were visited with severe frost, when the thermometer was 3° below freezing, and snow was seen on the mountains.

October.—During this month we experienced violent changes of temperature. The first nine days were humid and most oppressively sultry; on the 10th, it became extremely cold, with showers of hail, and frost in the nights. On the morning of the 16th the thermometer was as low as 26° , and on the morning of the 18th we had a heavy fall of snow, which amounted to five or six inches in depth, when all the surrounding mountains were perfectly white. On the 19th the temperature changed again to unseasonable mildness, which, excepting some trifling variations, continued to the end of the month; during this latter period we had some very heavy falls of rain.

November.—This month was extremely wet and stormy; the winds, which were generally westerly, frequently blew most violent hurricanes. The sudden changes of temperature, and also the rapid falling and rising of the mercury in the barometer, were very remarkable; the changes of temperature, at times, amounted to upwards of thirty degrees in twenty-four hours, and the falling or rising of the mercury in the barometer upwards of one-tenth of an inch in an hour. We had only five fair days; some showers of snow, hail, and sleet occurred, with frosty nights, and snow was often observed on the tops of the surrounding mountains.

December commenced with a heavy fall of snow about seven inches in depth; it was succeeded by a few days

of intense frost; on the morning of the 5th the thermometer was 15° ; on the following morning it was 40° , when we had a heavy fall of mild rain, which soon dissolved the snow, and caused the rivers here to overflow their banks to a considerable extent. The weather afterwards, excepting some trifling intervals of moderate frost, was, during the whole of the month, very mild, moist, and gloomy, and, at times, extremely wet and stormy; on the 20th, 21st, 22d, 25th, and 26th, we had most violent hurricanes from the south-west, with torrents of rain and sleet, which swelled the rivers here beyond their banks to a greater extent than has been witnessed here for many years. The last two days of the month were extremely stormy, when the wind from the south-west blew in dreadful gusts.

In the Monthly Magazine for February 1821, was given a general meteorological summary for the last twenty years, and the general average up to this period is nearly the same, excepting the quantity of rain; the average of the last four years has increased two inches.

WM. PITT.

Carlisle, January 2, 1825.

STATE OF THE WEATHER AT MANCHESTER.

The quantity of rain that has fallen in this neighbourhood during the last four months is great, we believe, almost beyond precedent, amounting, according to the observations of Mr. John Dalton, to no less than 24.660 inches up to the 26th of December. The following are the particulars:—

In September	5.440 inches.
In October	6.890
In November	5.510
In December (to the 26th inclusive)	6.820

Total, 24.660

Mr. Dalton's observations not having been completed to a later date than the 26th, we have procured from another gentleman a statement of the rain that has fallen since that day, and find that it amounts to 1.015 inches, making a total in four months of more than 25.675 inches—a prodigious quantity, when it is considered that the average fall of rain for a year in this town is about 34 inches, and in London only about 22 inches; of course, also, this rain has produced frequent floods in all the rivers of the neighbourhood; but they have been more remarkable for their frequency than their height.

ABSTRACT

**ABSTRACT of a METEOROLOGICAL REGISTER for the Year 1824,
At HIGH WYCOMBE.**

MONTH.	Thermometer.			Barometer.			Rain.	Days of Rain, Snow, &c.	Winds.	
	Highest.	Lowest.	Mean.	Highest.	Lowest.	Mean.	Ins. Dcls.		West, S. W. S. & S. E.	East, N. E. N. & N. W.
January .	52.25	21.00	35.59	30.33	28.57	29.79	1.175	12	19	12
February .	51.25	23.50	37.24	30.25	28.63	29.65	3.456	19	13	16
March. . .	55.00	23.50	37.78	30.07	28.85	29.61	3.168	15	18	13
April. . . .	62.50	26.00	42.48	30.23	28.92	29.66	2.693	17	15	15
May.	70.25	27.25	48.00	30.38	29.29	29.72	3.187	10	9	22
June	73.50	35.50	52.99	30.09	28.96	29.62	3.638	15	11	19
July.	78.00	39.00	58.12	30.24	29.31	29.74	1.631	10	23	8
August ..	77.00	39.00	57.34	30.12	29.33	29.67	2.875	15	17	14
September	80.00	27.75	51.26	29.99	29.11	29.62	3.487	17	21	9
October. .	63.75	24.50	45.99	29.89	28.63	29.37	3.852	17	26	5
November	55.50	24.50	43.24	29.89	28.27	29.37	4.287	20	27	3
December	53.50	24.00	39.30	30.17	28.77	29.56	3.850	19	23	8
Annual Mean. . . .			46.11	Annual Mean		29.61	37,299	186	222	144

*General Observations on the Weather
made at High Wycombe during the
Year 1824.*

January.—The year commenced with a heavy gale of wind at south-west, which produced a change, and the thermometer stood below the freezing point for several nights following; little rain fell until the latter part of the month, which was variable; but its general character fine and mild. Snow fell twice, but not to lay upon the ground.

February.—The first twelve days were generally fine; the latter part of the month dull and heavy, and the quantity of rain greater than usual. Snow fell but twice, and only once to lay upon the ground, but it disappeared in a few hours.

March.—Was remarkably wet, rain having fallen on fifteen different days; on the 22d the rain, mixed with some of the snow, measured nearly an inch; and the whole month might be deemed cold for the season, the thermometer only once standing at temperate, at 3 P.M., and generally much below that point at that hour.

April.—There was a considerable fall of rain on the 1st, more than one-fourth of the whole quantity in the month, which was rather above the average. Snow, to the depth of three-fourths of an inch, fell, on the night of the 10th; a greater quantity than had fallen during the winter—the mean temperature low.

May.—So much rain has not fallen in the month of May since 1818—on the 15th nearly two inches fell, and there was a severe frost on the following night; the range of the thermometer was 43°, the extremes being 70.25 and 27.25.

June.—The temperature of this month never reached summer heat, and the quantity of rain was much greater than I have observed during the last eight years; being more than double the average of this month for the seven years preceding: the month might, therefore, be deemed wet and cold.

July.—Was distinguished by one of the heaviest storms of thunder and lightning, on the 14th, that has been experienced for some years; the storm, which was preceded by a thick heavy lurid sky and extreme darkness, commenced about 10 A.M., and continued with little intermission until late in the night; the electric fluid passed down the chimney of a house building close to this town, but did no damage; no hail fell here, although there was much within a few miles; the remainder of the month was generally fine but not hot.

August.—The mean temperature was not above that of the two last years, and although the quantity of rain was more than usual, and so wet an August has not been observed since 1817, yet as the rain mostly fell in the night, and the days were fine, the harvest proceeded

ceeded advantageously. Lightning was seen once on the 20th.

September.—On the 2d the thermometer reached its greatest height during the year, 80°, but fell, on the night of the 28th, four degrees and a half below the freezing point: this was an extreme of cold seldom experienced so early in the year; the quantity of rain was also very great, yet the mean temperature was higher than that of the same month in the two preceding years.

October.—Rain fell frequently during the month, on the 10th, something more than an inch: indeed the weather throughout may be denominated wet and dull, the fine days being very few.

November.—There were many fine days in the month, and some heavy gales of wind, particularly on the 23d, at south; the quantity of rain three times as much as in the month of November last year, but the mean temperature and mean height of the barometer were much the same.

December.—Snow fell once, in the month, on the night of the 3d, but in a very trifling quantity, and was succeeded by rain, during a large portion of the following day; the quantity of rain, for the whole month, greater than in December last year, which was a wet month, some few days extremely fine and mild; the mean temperature and mean height of the barometer above that of the same month last year.

The statement is made to conform to the plan observed by Mr. Pitt, of Carlisle, and may prove beneficial by shewing the different temperatures, &c., at such distant stations.

JAMES G. TATEM.

High Wycombe, Jan. 6, 1825.

METEOROLOGICAL REPORT FOR HOXTON.

Sir: I again send you an account of the weather for the past year, as a sequel to my last, p. 33, vol. 57, viz.

January, 1824.—Began warm, the first week thermom. at 48°, with some rain; the remainder of the month dry and frosty with little exception; there were three or four thick foggy days; the mornings and evenings throughout hazy, but the sun frequently very clear at noon.

February.—Was pretty uniform for the first fortnight, neither wet nor dry, but damp from night mists; one morning a little snow, the first this year, but barely enough to cover the ground; the last fortnight, excepting two or three

days, was wet and cold; a little more snow fell, but the rain having prior possession, it could not lay.

The first week in *March* was a mixture of wet and dry, from sharp wind-frost, and rain and a trifling snow; second week, boisterously windy (many shipwrecks), and cold with a little snow; on the 13th was a shower of snow with hail, succeeded by a clap of thunder at three o'clock p.m.; the 17th, and two or three following days, were beautiful, warm, and growing, from which time the cold increased; and on the 22d was a great fall of snow for two hours, which, as before, could not lay; bleak winds with frequent flying showers of rain, hail, and snow, nearly made up the rest of the month, which ended dry and frosty.

The first fortnight in *April* brought cold and searching N. E. winds; in general dry, frequently fine and clear at noon, excepting the 11th being a snowy morning, a great deal fell but soon dissolved. Spring began with this month, but summer-weather with the Easter week, being exceedingly fine and temperate; the latter part was warm and showery; left off fires.

May.—Opened wet, cool, and very changeable, took to our fires again; continued lowery and ungenial, together with blighting winds from N. E. to W: fruit much injured; then succeeded three days of continued heavy rain, which so penetrated every house, and inundated various parts in and around the metropolis, as to leave many houses under water, with other evils attending such floodings; a little fair weather was the conclusion.

June.—Began fair, the Whitsun holidays beautifully fine, clear and warm, was then followed by a cool nipping air, with frequent rains, wind very often from E. and N. E., bringing a deal of blight, in fact, altogether it was a more cool, wet, and unpleasant June, than in many years.

July.—For about the first three weeks was directly the reverse weather, began delightfully fine, and became (excepting a day or two) sultry and close, with scarcely a motion of air; which therefore, produced, on Wednesday the 14th, as great a storm of thunder, lightning, and rain, from nine o'clock p.m., till past one o'clock the next morning as is perhaps remembered; the lightning began in the S., veered round to the E., and so alternately, keeping up continued and vast sheet-flashes, blinding your

a moment; at times it was very vivid. It ceased for about half an hour, only to begin with renewed vigour; the clouds then opened over the metropolis, and poured down their torrents, and the thunder rolling awfully accompanied by equally alarming flashes of lightning; the injury sustained around the suburbs and in the neighbouring counties, between the two points of action, is very great; from this the weather became temperate and agreeable, till the second week in

August—Which was unsettled, between wet, cold, and warmth, at last the long wished for change arrived, it became very warm and dry, with a clear sky and delightful serenity, thus continuing through to the first part of

September—In which were some very hot days, the remainder of the month was rather changeable and cool, but rather fine altogether; very heavy dews then came on, refreshing and prolonging till late the summer verdure.

October—For first fortnight very dewy, then some rain, and a few days sharp frost, to the end was mild and temperate, though changeable; dusk at half-past five o'clock.

November—For the first week was

very fine with a healthy coolness; Lord Mayor's Day the same, but a wet evening; the next fortnight remarkably warm, with a great deal of rain, and heavy dews and fogs, morning and evening; a few fine days followed; again wet and very boisterous (taken in all I never knew a milder November, the air being soft).

December—Was a continuation of the same rough weather at first, excepting now and then a sharpish frost, and sometimes a fine day; but to the end of the third week, the rain that had fallen was considerable indeed; stormy and boisterous winds westerly, &c., great inundations on the coast of Cornwall, with ruin to numbers; subscriptions raised for them; the western coast of Europe suffered equally with us, at last; the year closed with an inclination to clear up.

The principal feature therefore of the year, has been the quantity of rain, and that so alternately, doing great injury, causing rather a scarcity of fruit, and that indifferent; the intervention of warm weather for the harvest was fortunate. Your's, &c. N.

Jan. 24, 1825.

MISCELLANEOUS INTELLIGENCE.

The rage for speculation seems rather to increase than to diminish, and will perhaps go on in an accelerated ratio, until it receive some severe check by one or two grand schemes failing. Many of the new undertakings are decidedly useful and reasonable; none, however, have started up in such sudden abundance as projects for making rail-roads; their use, even upon a small scale, had till lately been confined to a few mining and manufacturing districts; the discovery, however, of the moveable steam-engine, having rendered their application easy for much more extensive purposes, their utility began to be shown by men of science, and the public so quickly perceived it, that seven or eight rail-ways, in different parts of the island, were immediately planned, and associations are now forming to furnish the funds required. The facility which this new application of science will give to internal commerce is prodigious; not only will goods be conveyed, from one part of the country to another, at a rate four or five times as rapid as they could be transported by canals, but the speed of travellers, great as it now is in mail-coaches, may be more than doubled. An idea has been

given of a steam-coach to carry passengers twenty miles an hour on a rail-way. A gallery seven feet high and eight wide, formed into ten separate galleries, of ten feet long each, connected together by joints, to allow the train to bend where the road turns; for as to the coach, there are contrivances for a common communication and for a general sitting place or promenade, two of the rooms being set apart for cooking, stores, and various accommodations; the other eight would lodge 100 passengers, whose weight, with that of their luggage, might be twelve tons, the coach itself twelve more, and that of the locomotive machine eight, making in the whole 32 tons.

Among all the new projects and inventions with which this age teems, there is not one which seems to present such a boundless prospect of improvement as the general introduction of rail-ways for commercial communication. Such a new power of loco-motion cannot be introduced without effecting a vast change in the state of society. With so great a facility and celerity of communication, the provincial towns of an extensive empire would become so many suburbs of the metropolis; or rather the

the effect would be similar to that of collecting the whole inhabitants of a country into one city. Commodities, inventions, discoveries, opinions, feelings would circulate with a rapidity hitherto unknown; and, above all, the personal intercourse of man with man would be prodigiously increased.

Struck with the contrast, which our city church-yards present, to the burial ground of Père la Chaise, near Paris, a scheme has been projected by some individuals for a receptacle of the dead, on a large scale in the vicinity of London. They propose to give it the name of the Necropolis, or city of the dead, and mean that it should be laid out in a style, which, for solemnity, taste and magnificence, may surpass any thing yet undertaken. It is a mistake to suppose that church-yards are the only proper places for Christian burial. On the contrary, the origin of their use in England is not of earlier date than the year 750.

The concentrated rough pyroligneous acid is recommended as the best mode of giving the smoky taste to hams, beef, &c. After the meat has been properly salted it should be hung up to drain for twenty-four hours, then with a brush, such as is used for oiling harness, dipped in the acid, rub the meat well all over, and hang it up in an airy dry place; one application is sufficient, but a second or third will produce a more powerful Westphalia flavour. The flavour thus obtained is more delicate, the meat less liable to become rancid; and the sacrifice of a few minutes produces all the effect of the common methods of smoking.

New Naval Uniform.—A long order has lately been issued, for effecting a change in the uniform of the Navy; a branch of our service, which, in every point of view, both within and without, required, we conceive, as little alteration as any thing in the universe. Could the spirits of the Rodneys, the Howes, the Duncans, and the Nelsons revisit the gangway of a three-decker, how little would they applaud this apparent innovation. There has appeared of late years, in some quarter or other, too great a disposition to interfere in trifling matters like this. The dress of the army has undergone alterations innumerable; some of them certainly very praiseworthy, but the greater part of them very much the reverse. No one but must approve of the abolition of the enormous cock'd hat and heavy larded pigtails which used to disfigure the household troops; and had the alterations stopped at similar reforms, no one could have objected to them. But when we look at the frippery and expense which have been introduced into some of the cavalry regiments, a stranger would be half inclined to suppose that the worshipful company of merchant tailors had actually obtained a footing in the Government, and had migrated from their ancient hall in Threadneedle-street to Downing-street

and the Horse Guards. This foolery, it would seem, is not to stop here, but the rage for *costume* is to be extended to the civil magistrates of the crown; and the whole tribe of Commissioners, Auditors, Secretaries, Clerks, Inspectors, &c., are to form a party coloured corps.

Intended New Civil Uniform.—An order for a New Uniform to be worn by the Civil Establishments is expected from the Treasury. The following has been determined on for one of the departments in Somerset-place:—*Commissioners.*—Plain blue coat, double-breasted, gilt buttons, with the royal arms; yellow waistcoat, with buttons like those on the coat; Oxford mixture Wellington pantaloons. N.B. The chairman to have the skirts of his coat lined with yellow serge.—*Inspectors.*—Plain blue single-breasted coat, yellow waistcoat, Oxford mixture pantaloons. Buttons the same as the Commissioners.—*Senior Examiners, 1st Class.*—Plain blue single-breasted coat, yellow waistcoat, Oxford mixture trousers; gilt buttons, with a crown, encircled by a garter, bearing the name of the establishment. Four broad black silk bars on the cuff of the coat.—*Senior Examiners, 2d Class.*—The same; three bars on the cuff.—*Junior Examiners.*—The same; two bars on the cuff.—*Assistants.*—The same; one bar on the cuff.—*Secretary.*—Same as Inspectors, with the addition of two broad black silk bars on the cuff, placed X.—*Secretary's Department.*—Same as the Examiners, with whom they rank, except the bars on the cuff, which are to be similar to the Secretary's, but rather narrower.—*Office-keepers, Messengers, and Porter.*—Scarlet coat, single-breasted; blue waistcoat, light mixture trousers, made very full; gilt buttons, having G.R. and the office to which they belong, thereon.—Any person appearing at the office out of uniform, on and after the 5th of April next, to forfeit one day's pay.—*January 1825.*

We hear that three life-boats, built for the use of the Royal National Institution for the Preservation of Shipwrecked Mariners, are now lying at the Tobacco-grounds, Rotherhithe, for inspection, preparatory to their being removed to Brighton, Newhaven and Biddeford. We learn also that seven more boats are nearly completed for that institution.

The old College of Physicians in Warwick-lane is to be pulled down. The new college at the extremity of Pall Mall East, begins to assume a handsome appearance.

The long dead park wall, leading from Hyde Park Corner towards Knightsbridge, is about to be removed and replaced by iron railings, like those separating St. James's Park from Piccadilly.

The State Carriage and Equipage of the King of Portugal.—Messrs. Bushnell, Honywill and Co. the coach-builders in Berners'-street, have lately finished a magnificent carriage, similar to our King's State Carriage.

Carriage, and which is intended for his Majesty the King of Portugal.

Previous to 1817, the number of works printed in Russia did not exceed 4,000—about the same number as is annually contained in the catalogues of the fair at Leipsic. This number is now augmented to about 8,000. There appear, at present, fifteen periodical papers in the four provinces of the Baltic; only three of these papers are in the language of the primitive inhabitants of these countries: they have principally for their object the advancement of civilization. The editors of two popular Livonian journals are two clergymen of this country of the names of Masing and Watson.

A royal proclamation has just been issued in Hanover, distinctly repealing the provision of the German confederation of 1815, in the following terms: "The several professors of the Christian faith enjoy a perfect equality of civil and political rights in the kingdom." In conformity with the said article, the motion of a predominant and of a merely tolerated church is entirely abolished.

British Mining Association.—A project has been started in the city under the above name for the purpose of working the mines of Cornwall. The capital said to be required is only £400,000.

An oak tree, about 300 years old, is now growing on the Rev. Thomas Weld's manor at Wool. Its trunk is hollow, about 30 feet in height, and through this cavity a fine birch tree has sprung up, the branches of which appear above the top of the oak.

One of the most remarkable moral phenomena, in the history of society, is un-

doubtedly the rapid extension of education and knowledge, in this country, among the people, at the present day. The vast increase not merely of publications of various kinds sent forth from the press, and especially of periodical publications and newspapers—incalculably exceeding the increase of population, within a few years, proves that the habit, as well as the faculty of reading has gained upon what may be called the multitude. A new impulse has recently been given to the popular intellect, by the establishment of schools of Science and the useful Arts. It is unnecessary to point out to any person who has at all attended to what is going on in the world, the rapid progress of these institutions, and the progress especially of scientific education among the working artisans in the large towns of England and Scotland. But the working people are not merely acquiring knowledge—they are communicating it, and to those in a condition above them. The cheap publications, conveying knowledge of science and the useful arts, published in London; not only have the merit of ingenuity, and of useful and curious information, but are distinguished by a grace of style and a propriety of tone which shames and rebukes works and authors of much higher pretension. In fact, the common people are rapidly usurping that knowledge which used to be the prerogative of those of higher station. We find the working artisans appropriating the theory and practice of arithmetic, geometry, mechanics, physics and chemistry—and what remains after this but poetry, speculation, and the mere luxuries of literature.

REVIEW OF NEW WORKS—Continued.

A VOICE from INDIA, &c. By Capt. SEELY.

IN our Review of the general argument of this rather important, and highly interesting little work (*Vol. 58, No. 404, p. 535-6*), we intimated, that, independently of the political object of the author, some information of more general interest, might be gleaned from its pages. Of this description, we consider every thing that is connected with the population of British India, the classes or castes into which that population is divided, the comparative numbers of European residents and native inhabitants, and the description of moral and political character, likely to be formed and nurtured by temporary residence there. We extract, therefore, whatever appears most calculated to throw light upon this range of inquiry. And first of the composite population of British India.

"The Indian community may be divided into three classes; the first, and of course the largest part, is the natives, Hindoos and Mussulmans—the former being about fifteen to one of the latter. Among the native population is a sprinkling of Jews, Arabs, Armenians, and Parsees, with a few Chinese. The second class is composed of the officers, civil and military, of his Majesty and the East India Company's service, and gentlemen of the legal profession. The third class consists of the European community, all of whom are, or ought to be, licensed according to Act of Parliament. These consist of free merchants and free mariners, and persons who are smuggled out by being borne on the ship's books as seamen, &c., and allowed to depart on the ship's arrival. Probably the most numerous part of the third class are the last-mentioned persons, who have deserted from the East India shipping.

"They go out to India under certain restrictions, and, while there, must conform to the orders and regulations of the government,

ment, as established by the British Legislature in England; *they* are consequently ever dissatisfied, and anxious to throw off the necessary restraint and surveillance in which they are placed; but that which most excites *their* displeasure, and often gives rise to misbehaviour and reproach, on the part of the licensed settler or deserter, is, that *they* are not permitted to go up the country to colonize, or form locations in the interior; neither can they enter into the service of a native prince, buy land, or lend money at usury to the *native princes*; all these just restrictions they fancy are grievances, and although they went to India with the certainty of experiencing them, still *they* imagine *they* are free men, and ought to do as *they* please.* Possessing the natural energies of the English character, improved by education, and stimulated by ambition and poverty, nothing would be easier for the adventurer than to embroil the native princes in war, and at a fitting season bring them into our territories, or aid a hostile power. Those who know the dissipated habits of the Mussulman princes are aware, that to obtain money they would not hesitate to pay one hundred per cent. for it, and to defray the interest, would, in the most unmerciful manner, rack-rent their territories to the last rupee, all of which evil must fall upon the lower orders."

India, says our author, is a conquered country, where our numerical strength is nothing:—a position thus sustained in the Appendix, No IV.:

It will be seen by the following Statistical Table from a French paper, on the Geography of Hindoostan, what was the probable amount of population in 1820. I think our native subjects, with the subjects of our allies, may be fairly estimated at the round sum of 100,000,000. The British in India of every denomination (including the King's regiments,) may be calculated at nearly 45,000.†

British Possessions :	Inhabitants.	Square Miles.
Bengal, Bahar, and Benares ..	39,000,000	162,000
Augmentation since 1795 ..	18,000,000	148,000
Gurwhal, Kumaon, and the country between the Sutledge and the Jumna	500,000	18,000
Under the Presidency of Bengal	57,500,000	328,000
Under Madras	15,000,000	154,000
Under Bombay	2,500,000	11,000
Territories of the Deccan, &c. acquired since 1815, and not united to any Presidency ..	8,000,000	60,000
	83,000,000	553,000

* This is a tolerably direct confession, by the way, that in the very act of going to India an Englishman engages to leave the principles and feelings of a free-man behind him. When such principles and feelings have once been voluntarily resigned and habitually disused, can they be taken up again at pleasure? and if not, ought any person who has served an apprenticeship of voluntary slavery in India, to be ever after permitted to hold any office of political trust and power in this free country?—*Edit.*

† The British population are subdivided by the author into four classes, viz. the Civil Functionaries; 2d, Military Officers; 3d, Gentlemen of the legal profession, and substantial Merchants; and 4th, Adventurers in any line of life by which they can obtain the means of subsistence.

"Allies and Tributaries of the English:

The Nizam	10,000,000	96,000
The Rajah of Nagpore	3,000,000	70,000
The King of Oude	3,000,000	20,000
The Guicowar	2,000,000	18,000
The Rajah of Mysore	3,000,000	17,000
The Rajah of Sattarah	1,500,000	11,000
Travancore and Cochin	1,000,000	8,000
Rajahs of Jeypore, Bickaneer, &c. Holkar, the Seiks, the Row of Cutch, and a multiplicity of other native chiefs, under English protection	15,000,000	283,000
	38,500,000	523,000

"Independent States :

The Rajah of Nepaul	2,000,000	53,000
The Rajah of Lahore	3,000,000	50,000
Sind	1,000,000	24,000
The Dominions of Scindiah ..	4,000,000	40,000
	10,000,000	167,000

"Cabul, Soondah, Goa, &c. &c. are omitted."

The great mass of this immense population, the author asserts "without fear of contradiction," are satisfied and pleased with our rule: but he adds:—

"I am far from admitting that there are not thousands of able, aspiring, and discontented natives, of education and rank, who would gladly join in any measure that promised to displace British power."—"Once informed of the opinions of each other, the time of going to work, how to set about it, their own physical strength, and the great resources of the country, our discomfiture and final annihilation would be far more speedily accomplished than our rise to prosperity and power has been."—"In the revolutions which have taken place in India, and in the establishment of our extensive power, it will be evident to every thinking mind that thousands of intelligent and respectable men have necessarily fallen in their fortunes: can it be doubted for a moment that they would not readily seize the opportunity of rising and aggrandizing themselves; or, in other words, that by a change to the old native rule, instead of being assistants in the public service, they would become deputies, instead of deputies becoming principals? In subordinate cases they would exchange from the servant to the master; and that man who now, in consideration of his decayed respectability or the former services of his family, receives a pension, would, in the course of political events, expect to be enabled, by the "happy change," to pay pensions himself. All those nobles, ministers, and others, who held to the old court at Delhi, the countless scions of royalty, and thousands of other dependents, would look with delight and enthusiasm to the re-establishment of themselves and followers."

"There is a numerous and important class of persons among the native community to whom we must now allude, viz. the native officers employed by the government in civil capacities. These people, from education and employment, are for the most part a superior body of men, and intrusted with responsible duties. They

generally possess great influence in their districts, and their public situations give them a command and weight that we in this country, where nothing of caste, and still less of the usages of India, are known, can have no just conception of."—"There is also a respectable but inferior class of native public officers. They are intimately, by caste and religious feeling, identified with the body of people mentioned in the last chapter; and without their assistance, I do not hesitate to say, that the government could not conduct its operations."

"Another portion of our Indian subjects, is the fine and well disciplined native army of nearly 200,000 men, all bound together by ties of caste. These men have always looked upon us with notions almost bordering on veneration; they are high-minded but obedient, strongly attached, because they are well treated and their religious prejudices respected; loyal, because they believe us to be humane, just, and powerful; and they have not been told otherwise."

Capt. Seely seems to make but a very low estimate of the Christian civilization, which colonization and free intercourse between Europeans and the native Indians would produce; and it is evident that, by a side wind, throughout, he alludes, also, to the enlightening influence of Christian missionaryship.*

"What an addition it will be to the rural economy of the now happy Hindoo village, where a crime or riot does not happen once in half a century, to see a tread-mill with half a dozen enlightened and reformed Hindoo females, performing their lazy evolutions! Happy, thrice happy change."—"The plenteousness and cheapness of the ardent spirits made in India, and those of an inferior kind being

* In page 156, indeed, the author speaks out plainly upon this subject. "Make the Hindoos as enlightened as ourselves, and make them half or imperfect converts to Christianity, our expulsion must follow." And again, in page 161: "It is a melancholy and undeniable fact, that, although the Hindoos are heathens, and are daily bespattered by hyper-cant with false charges and foul appellations, they are more sober, chaste, and kind-hearted than the like orders of people in England. There is less crime and vice in Calcutta, containing 350,000 inhabitants, than will be found to exist among 350,000 people in this country; a people, too, who are educated, and boast of their morality. I will take upon myself to say, that upon a reference to the calendar and police, there shall be found more atrocious actions and convictions recorded in London, than in the whole kingdom of Bengal, including the city of Calcutta."

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procurable in abundance by merely tapping the date, the cocoa nut, and other trees, would furnish the dissolute European with the greatest seduction to vice and crime ready at his hands; and the attractive qualities of the pretty Hindoo female (a far different creature in manners, morals, and temper to the heavy, uncouth, and masculine female peasant of Europe) would cause unspeakable horrors; for rather than they would submit to pollution, they would destroy themselves by hundreds, and their daughters would cheerfully follow their example."—"What are the natives to gain by being newly fashioned? Are they only to receive our very few virtues, and reject our numerous vices? At present they have few, very few evil propensities, and still fewer vices."

"There is a class of society in India to whom I have not at all alluded, because, during the present century, neither their numerical strength nor importance gives them a preponderating weight in the community. I need hardly say I allude to Indo-Britons, or half-castes, the offspring of European fathers, and native mothers."—"Some attention has of late been bestowed upon them, and no one more than myself applauds the wisdom and liberality of a late act of government, by which they may possess land in any part of our territories. Most of these persons receive a good education, are intelligent, and inherit from their fathers some portion of the energy and enterprise of the English character. I am by no means unwilling to admit but that there are many who have a keen sense of the disregard with which they are treated, and are impatient and dissatisfied with their station in society."—"They are high-minded from their accomplishments; proud, because their progenitors, probably, have filled high situations; confident of their powers, from the English blood that flows in their veins. With these qualities they possess in the admixture of blood the address, industry, and acuteness of the native; the latter qualities are sharpened and improved by their English education and habits; altogether it may be supposed that they are vastly superior to the natives, and many of them but little inferior to their European ancestors; in short, there is much to admire in their character, and much to be lamented in their political situation."—"They are rapidly increasing."

The following are subjects fit for the satyric, and the tragic drama.

"There are monsters that I have known, who, after begetting native children, and accumulating large fortunes, have quitted India for ever, leaving their offspring totally unprovided for; have arrived in England, have married an Englishwoman, bought a large estate, and dashed away splendidly, quite forgetting that their children in India,

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to whom they had given a wretched existence, were in want of bread, or paupers on society, whilst the parent revelled in luxury and dissipation—

“Would look gay, and smile against his conscience.”

“When a youth, and returning from my first voyage to India, I was earnestly implored by a young gentleman of irreproachable character to wait on his father, an old Indian of large fortune, at ——— Park, in the county of B ———, and represent his distressed situation, with three legitimate children, and a salary, as a *cranny* (clerk), of only sixty rupees a month. He had attained, by his own industry, a good education; this, probably, in his distressed situation, increased, rather than assuaged, the anguish of his mind. On my arrival in England, I went down to the Park; it was not half a day's journey,—but the affectionate father, the tender parent, was not to be seen. That rebuff would not suit the ardour of my temperament, and I insisted upon seeing him, and at last succeeded. After a short private conversation (for he did not wish his dear wife and dear children to know of his misdeeds in India), he made an engagement to meet me in Baker-street; to this he honourably pledged himself, and as honourably broke his engagement. I did not fail, young as I then was, to *favour* him with my sentiments. On my return to India, finding the ill success of my mission with the other, his son retired from the room where we had been sitting, and blew his brains out with a pistol.—I will give another instance of baseness and cruelty; and I am not without hopes that these facts may lead to a beneficial and practicable result. A person of large fortune (it would be an insult to humanity to say a gentleman) was retiring from India; and his son and daughter, having received their education in England, had imbibed with their knowledge some portion of our spirit, and they insisted that their fond and doating parent (in which character he chose to appear while in India), should leave 40,000 rupees, for their joint lives, in his agent's hands, the interest of which they were to draw for their mutual benefit monthly. This was regularly done for a year and upwards; but the young man having obtained a trifling situation, and the father in England finding that his dear English wife spent his dear sicca rupees rather fast, he drew out of the agent's hands the 40,000 rupees, and wrote to his dear son, ‘that now he had got employment he could maintain himself and sister genteely.’ Great God! will monsters like these have the impudence to call themselves *Christians* and *gentlemen*!”

The proposal of Capt. S. with reference to this subject does him honour. Those, who have the power, are dishonoured if they do not adopt it.—

“That no European (be he a governor, or judge, or a general, a licensed settler, or any other person,) shall be allowed to take his *final* leave of India until he has, to the satisfaction of the government, made a due provision, according to his means, for his offspring by native women.”

We will close our quotations with a paragraph or two upon the subject of the *native troops*.

“Tell them that it was the ‘decided intention of their rulers to convert them to Christianity, and they would instantly cut the throats of the very officers whom they now love and respect;’ if this was not the case, I would forfeit every thing I possess on the issue.”—“The Siphaupees love their officers; they are regularly paid, humanely treated, and their *religious customs* respected; no insult is ever offered to their women, and in their old age they have a certain provision. But that which most excites their admiration, is that they know even their European officers are liable to be tried and punished for any arbitrary act towards them, or misconduct in the discharge of their duties. With the native princes they knew they were certain of nothing but oppression, and being robbed of their miserable pay by some knave or other in office. Of their courage and faithfulness we have had repeated proofs, as far back as Lord Clive's time: when his Europeans deserted him, the native soldiery remained faithful. At the late battles at Poona and Nagpore, both of which were sanguinary, and their result doubtful for two days, our Siphaupees remained firm; and it cannot be too often repeated, that at neither of these places was there a single soldier of his Majesty's army; all were our own native soldiers, and the odds were 100 to 1 against us. With the Peishwa the battle was, if possible, more admirable for the honour and character of the Bombay army; the majority of the troops were his *own subjects*, recruited in his *own districts*; to these he offered rewards and inducements to quit their colours, nay, he went so far as to vow vengeance against their wives and families resident in his *own villages*; but it was all unavailing.”

The most interesting parts of this book, in our estimation at least, are the slight incidental glimpses we catch in it of native Indian character.

A short EXTRACT from the LIFE of GENERAL MINA. Published by Himself.

TO this little volume of only one hundred and seven pages (including the Spanish and English versions) is prefixed the following advertisement:

“The sacred objects to which I destine the

the produce of this book oblige me to declare, that I will not permit its being reprinted without my sanction, by any person. I likewise hope, that the delicacy of the Gentlemen Editors of the Public Papers will take this notice into consideration.

“ESPOZ Y MINA.”

Understanding, of course, the spirit of this admonition as equally addressed to the periodical and to the diurnal press; and fully confident that the objects alluded to can be no other than such as are truly honourable to an heroic and exalted mind, we nevertheless conceive that we should be acting rather in hostility than in unison with the furtherance of those motives, should we give so unqualified an interpretation to the injunction, as to preclude such notices and extracts as may be calculated to excite attention to a work, which, the more it is known, will be likely to be the more widely circulated.

From it we learn that General Mina was born of honest but humble parents at Idozin, a village of Navarre, in 1781; that he devoted himself to the care of the little farm, which constituted the patrimony of his family, till he was 26; that excited by the treacherous invasion of Napoleon, he enlisted, as a common soldier, in Doyle's battalion; became shortly the elected chief of *seven* Guerrillas; was immediately after named Commander-in-Chief of the Guerrillas of Navarre, by the Junta of Aragon; and became, by successive promotions under the Regency, independent Commandant General of High Aragon to the left of the Ebro, in 1812. Relative to the use he made of this authority he speaks as follows:

“Immediately after I was named Commander-in-Chief of the Guerrillas of Navarre, I disarmed all those who were at the head of them, and particularly one named Echeverria. This man, under the mask of Guerrillero, with from 600 to 700 infantry, and about 200 cavalry, was the terror of the villages, which he plundered and oppressed in a thousand ways; which obliged them to complain to me concerning him. In consequence, I proceeded to Estella on the 13th of July 1810, and having myself arrested him, in a house where he was at the time, though my force was considerably inferior to his, I caused him on the same day to be shot, together with three of his principal accomplices; and I incorporated his soldiers with those I commanded, who did not exceed at that time 400 men of all arms.—During this campaign, I gave battle, or sustained the attack (without reckoning small encounters) in 143 regular or occasional actions;”

of the most distinguished of which he gives a list in alphabetical order. So again we find him in p.43, with the same prompt and vigorous policy augmenting his forces that should protect, by suppressing the disorders that distracted the country:

“When I was named Commandant-General of High Aragon, my first care was to clear that country of the bands of armed men who harassed it in various ways under pretence of carrying on the war there; and after having established a system like that in Navarre, I formed three battalions of infantry, and two squadrons of cavalry, which served to augment my forces.”

For the essential services which, with such apparently inadequate means, he rendered, during that war of independence which placed the ungrateful Ferdinand on the throne, we must refer the reader to the brief and simple statements in the work itself: but one or two passages, as particularly characteristic, we cannot resist the temptation of extracting. [His own force, it should be noted, was, at the time he is speaking of, only about 3,000 men.]

“I kept in check in Navarre 26,000 men for the space of 53 days, who otherwise would have assisted at the battle of Salamanca, as they were on their march to join Marmont's Army; and by cutting down the bridges, and breaking up the roads, I prevented the advance of 80 pieces of artillery, which would otherwise have been employed in that battle.”

After enumerating a series of facts of a similar description, he thus proceeds:

“The French, rendered furious by the disasters they experienced in Navarre, and by their fruitless attempts to exterminate my troops, having begun a horrible mode of warfare upon me in 1811, hanging and shooting every soldier and officer of mine who fell into their hands, as also the friends of the volunteers who served with me, and carrying off to France a great number of families; I published on the 14th of December the same year, a solemn Declaration, composed of 23 Articles, the first of which ran thus: *In Navarre, a war of extermination, without quarter, is declared against the French Army, without distinction of soldiers or chiefs, not excepting the Emperor of the French.* And this sort of warfare I carried on for some time, keeping always in the valley of Roncal a great depôt of prisoners, so that if the enemy hung or shot one of my officers, I did the same with four of his; if one of my soldiers, I did the same with twenty of his. In this manner I succeeded in terrifying him, and obliged him to propose to me the cessation

of so atrocious a system, which was accordingly agreed to."

Again :

" I never suffered a surprise. Once, on the 23d April, 1812, at break of day, having been sold by the Partizan Malcarado, who had previously made his arrangements with General Panetier, and had withdrawn the advanced guard from before Robres, I saw myself surrounded in the town by 1,000 infantry and 200 cavalry, and was attacked by five hussars at the very door of the house where I lodged ; I defended myself from these latter with the bar of the door, the only weapon I had at hand, while my attendant, Louis Gaston, was saddling my horse : and mounting immediately, with his assistance, I sallied forth, charged them, followed them up the street, cut off an arm of one of them at one blow, immediately collected some of my men, charged the enemy several times, rescued many of my soldiers and officers who had been made prisoners, and continued the contest for more than three-quarters of an hour, in order that the remainder might escape. This Louis Gaston I always retain about my person as a friend. The next day I caused Malcarado and his attendant to be shot ; while three Alcaldes and a parish priest, likewise concerned in the plot, were hanging.

" A price was set upon my head by the enemy from the end of 1811 till the conclusion of the war."

At the beginning of 1813, the government added to his military command the office of *Political Chief*; and for the services performed in his respective civil and military capacities, peace being concluded, King Ferdinand, who had entered Madrid, invited him to court in July 1814—where, however, his patriotic sentiments and advice appear to have rendered him an object of jealousy and intrigue; one of the machinations, connected with which, occasioned the desertion of 2,500 men from the regiments of the division of Navarre; and furnished the pretence for a Royal Order, commanding his immediate presence there to bring the deserters to trial. A simple proclamation, however, as soon as he reached Navarre, brought them back to their colours. The General thus proceeds :

" I still continued to command the division, until my attempt upon Pampeluna on the night of the 25th of September—with the object, which I will now disclose for the first time, of proclaiming the Constitution and the Cortes (as the Government confessed in its statement of my services)—rendering it impossible for me to remain any longer in Spain, I crossed over into France on the 4th of October of the said year, 1814. Unhappy moment which se-

parated me from my native land, and from my brave companions in arms, who had enabled me to give it so many days of glory. Eternal praise be to their names!"

To which we say, Amen !!!

From October 4, 1814, to February 22, 1820, he remained an exile in France and other countries.

" In March 1815, Napoleon, leaving the Island of Elba, entered France; I immediately demanded my passport for Switzerland, which was denied me three several times. Napoleon wished to draw me over to his service: his agents made me proposals sufficiently enticing—so enticing that they might have induced a man to waver. But Napoleon had been an enemy to my country: I could not come to terms with him. I left Bar-sur-Aube, without a passport, at break of day on the 29th of May, and the same night an officer sent by him, arrived there to conduct me to his presence. My escape was so precipitate, that I lost even my baggage, and set foot on the Swiss territory just as the Gendarmes, who were in pursuit of me, had come within pistol-shot."

The exploits of this venerated champion of a holy cause, during the war of liberty, are more fresh in general remembrance. Relative to these, however, we will extract the brief particulars he has supplied us with relative to the siege of Seo de Urgel :

" In this blockade, which lasted 74 days, against a numerous, fanatical, and resolute garrison, whose provisions and ammunition were immense; without one single cannon to oppose to 46 mounted pieces of artillery; in a miserable and barren country; in the sharpest and most rigorous season; my men almost naked, and sometimes even without a due supply of food, caused by the difficulty of communication; having to cover an extremely rugged and long line, for doing which six times the number of men would scarcely be sufficient; and, lastly, presenting to the world the extraordinary example of the besiegers being of the same number as the besieged; still in the end constancy and heroism were victorious, and 600 profligates and robbers taken out of the prisons, who formed the greater part of the faction of the ringleader Romagosa, the defender of the fortresses of Urgel, expiated their crimes on the morning of the evacuation, by their death upon the field."

Briefly and simply as the facts of his situation at Barcelona, the final scene of his patriotic exertions, are described in p. 93, they are such as cannot fail deeply to affect the generous heart. Deprived of many of his brave companions in arms, who were either killed or made prisoners; stretched on the bed

of decrepitude and disease, brought upon him by the fatigues and inclemencies to which he had been exposed; he had to contend, at the same time, "with the strength of the enemy without, and his manœuvres and intrigues within; with the enthusiasm of some and the dejection of others; and, lastly, with the most urgent and absolute want." Almost destitute of all pecuniary resources; cut off from all communication with the Government, even while that government could yet be said to exist, the army remaining with him reduced to about 6,000 men, his constancy and firmness enabled him not only to inflict frequent retribution on the besiegers, by repeated sallies, but to preserve public tranquillity, liberty, and national independence, within the sphere of his command, to the last extremity:

"At last, when the Constitutional Government was dissolved, with the Cortes; the King restored to absolute power; and when the enemy's army, reinforced by the 5th corps, under the command of Marshal Lauriston, was threatening a formidable siege to the only places in Catalonia which continued to defend themselves, Barcelona, Tarragona, and Hostalrich; what was to be done? To prolong the defence of them was next to impossible; hope there was none; and to bury ourselves in their ruins was absolutely useless. These strong and afflicting motives obliged me to conclude with Marshal Moncey, for the occupation of those three places, the treaty of the 1st of November, 1823; a treaty worthy of the brave men of the First Army of Operations, worthy of the inhabitants of those cities, and which may be ranked among the most honourable on record. According to its stipulations, the French brig of war *Le Cuirassier*, was placed at my disposal, to convey me, together with the officers and individuals that were able to follow me, to whatever port of England I should fix upon: and having embarked with them on the night of the 7th of November, and receiving every attention during the voyage, I arrived at Plymouth, where I landed on the 30th of that month, amidst expressions of public feeling as flattering as they were surprising to me. The same were afterwards lavished on me at every place where I happened to be known till my arrival in London, which I entered, and inhabited for the first four days without any one knowing it."

We shall conclude our extracts, as the exiled hero and patriot himself concludes, with a passage that must give a proud, though melancholy, satisfaction to every truly British heart.

"Recovered now from all my physical

sufferings, I bear up with my second emigration in this capital; where, notwithstanding the desire I feel, and have repeatedly expressed, of living in an obscure and retired manner, I still continue to receive increasing marks of attention, honour, and regard, and to experience uninterruptedly those traits of nobleness, of generosity and virtue, which are peculiar to a free and a great people."

HISTORICAL NOTES respecting the INDIANS of NORTH AMERICA. By T. HALKETT, Esq. In 1 vol. large 8vo.

IT is not to be understood that this work is a compilation of notes, made from a journal, during a residence or travels of Mr. Halkett among the Indians, but extracts made from the works of the various missionaries (with one or two exceptions) that have taken up their abode among them; and three-fourths of these are from the earliest visitors. So that, as far as they tend to shew the mistaken means, at first adopted by governments, and individuals, to civilize and instruct our unfortunate brethren, they have a certain degree of interest. But it is to be lamented, that Mr. H. had not confined himself more to the *present* methods resorted to for the furtherance of this great end. It is true that he clearly evinces to us, that the means heretofore tried have failed, and that after a lapse of 300 years, a most numerous, happy, and, in their wild-wood sovereignty, powerful people, are reduced to about 50,000 souls—a fifth part of which, notwithstanding all the efforts of the French and English Governments, colonists and missionaries, have received no more civilization than the doubtful name of Christian has bestowed upon them: we say doubtful—because the docile, tractable, and yielding habits of these people (partly natural, and partly owing to their certain knowledge, from experience, of the exterminating power which our *civilization* has given us over them) lead them often to make professions, and listen to and acknowledge doctrines which, among themselves, they laugh at, and deny. To shew how far their condescension, their *politeness*, or their *policy* will lead them, we may quote the following passage from the work:

"It has been already noticed, that the first mission of the Jesuits into the interior country was in the year 1634; and, with regard to the result of their early exertions, we cannot refer to a better authority than Charlevoix. 'The Indians have been seen to

to attend our churches,' says he, 'for years together, with an assiduity and solemnity which made it be supposed they entertained a sincere desire to learn and embrace the truths of Christianity: but they would suddenly refrain from coming to church, saying coolly to the missionary, 'You had no one to pray with you; I took compassion upon you in your solitude, and kept you company. Others at present are willing to render you the same service, I therefore take my leave.'" This fact, Charlevoix says, he learned from a missionary, to whom the circumstance happened at Michillimakinac; and that he also had read, in some of their accounts, that several of the Indians had even carried their complaisance so far as to request and receive the rites of baptism, performing for some time the Christian duties; after which they declared they had done all this only to please the priest, who was pressing them to change their religion."—*Hist. de la Nouvelle France*, liv. v.

The commencement of this volume tends to place the Indian character in a far more humane and superior light than our philanthropic civilizers of ignorant savages would give them credit for. It represents them as being a brave, candid, generous, hospitable, and peaceful people, highly intellectual, patiently enduring the worst of privations, affectionate husbands and fathers, and extremely ingenious; these qualities, it must be recollected, are allowed them by those who have lived among them for years. And why not then have left them so? they were then most happy.—But no—our zeal for the salvation of their souls, or the possession of their soil, made us ardent to undertake their civilization and conversion, and mark the means we took:

"In the year 1789, the American General Knox gave an entertainment at New York, to a number of Indian chiefs, sachems, and warriors. Before dinner, several of these walked from the apartment, where they were assembled, to the balcony in front of the house, from which there was a commanding view of the city and its harbour, of the East and North Rivers, and of the island upon which New York now stands, and which, at the first settlement of the Dutch, got the name of Manhattan. On returning into the room, the Indians seemed dejected, and their principal chief more so than the rest. This was observed by General Knox, who kindly asked if any thing had happened to distress him. 'Brother,' replied the chief, 'I will tell you. I have been looking at your beautiful city, the great water, your fine country, and I see how happy you all are. But then, I could not help thinking that this fine coun-

try, and this great water, were once ours. Our ancestors lived here; they enjoyed it as their own in peace; it was the gift of the Great Spirit to them and their children. At length the White people came in a great canoe. They asked only to let them tie it to a tree, that the waters might not carry it away. They then said that some of their people were sick, and they asked permission to land them and put them under the shade of the trees. The ice afterwards came, and they could not go away. They then begged a piece of ground to build wigwams for the winter; this we granted. They then asked for some corn to keep them from starving: we furnished it to them, and they promised to depart when the ice was gone. When the ice was gone, we told them they must now depart; but they pointed to their big guns round their wigwams, and said they would stay; and we could not make them go away. Afterwards more came. They brought with them intoxicating and destructive liquors, of which the Indians became very fond. They persuaded us to sell them some land; and, finally, they drove us back, from time to time, into the wilderness. They have destroyed the game; our people have wasted away; and now we live miserable and wretched, while the White people are enjoying our fine and beautiful country. It is this, Brother, that makes me sorry.'"

But mark the moral consequences of our civilized intercourse:

"Of the numerous vices imported from the Old World into the New, there is none which has proved so great a scourge to the Indians as the intemperate use of spirituous liquors. To the French, the Dutch, the Swedes, the British, and, in later times, to the Americans of the United States, have the North American Indians been indebted for the pernicious effects which intoxicating liquors have produced among them.

"That the baneful and destructive system of disposing of spirits to the Indians had always prevailed in full force, is not to be controverted; and the practice not only tended to increase their natural ferocity in time of war, but to prevent their improvement in time of peace. Those who have witnessed the effects of intoxication only upon Europeans, can scarcely form an adequate notion of the frenzy with which a North American Indian is infuriated when under the influence of liquor. In that state, every savage passion, which nature or habit has implanted in him, is let loose. He will then, with equal indifference, shed the blood of friend or foe; will sacrifice his nearest and dearest connexions, murdering without compunction, or the slightest cause of offence, his parents, his brethren, his wife, or his offspring. When the fit of insanity has passed, and the unfortunate wretch

wretch has recovered his reason, he laments in vain the misery which his own fury has entailed upon him; but while he justly ascribes to the European the blame of having supplied him with what caused such desolation, he will not scruple to seize the first opportunity of again obtaining it, and plunging with headlong infatuation into new scenes of riot and bloodshed.

"The French missionary Le Jeune, in one of his early reports from Canada to the superior of his order in France, observes, 'Our interpreter told me, that the Indians, belonging to a tribe, of whom one is now in prison for killing a Frenchman, reproach us extremely; saying it was the liquor, not the Indian, that committed the murder.' 'Send your wine and brandy to prison,' they exclaimed, 'it is these, and not we, who do the mischief.'" In the report for the subsequent year, the same missionary remarks: 'Since the arrival of the Europeans the Indians have become such drunkards, that although they perceive very clearly that the use of spirituous liquor is depopulating their country, and, although they themselves complain of this, yet they cannot abstain from drinking it. They die in great numbers in consequence; and indeed I am surprised that many of them resist its mortal effects so long as they do; because, if you give to a couple of Indians two or three bottles of brandy, they will sit down, and without eating any thing, will drink, the one after the other, till they have emptied the contents of the whole.' At another place, he observes: 'There are many orphans among these people, for since they have addicted themselves to the use of spirituous liquors, there is great mortality among them; and these poor children are dispersed among the cabins of their relations, by whom they are taken care of as if they were their own offspring.'"

"Boucher, who long held the situation of governor of Three Rivers, in Canada, remarks, that 'Those Indians who have communication with the Europeans, almost always become drunkards; which causes much mischief amongst us, many of those who had been converted having again relapsed. The Jesuit fathers have done all in their power to check the evil. The savages drink for the sole purpose of becoming intoxicated; and when once they begin, they would part with every thing they possess for a bottle of brandy in order to get drunk.' Monsieur Denys, who was governor of a large district towards the mouth of the river St. Lawrence, and Nova Scotia, thus expresses himself on the same subject:—'In their drinking entertainments, they are never satisfied unless they get completely and brutally intoxicated; and they think they cannot have had enough without having beat and knocked each other to pieces. The wo-

men, upon these occasions, often take away the guns, hatchets, daggers, and knives. This they are allowed to do if the drinking has not begun, otherwise the women would not venture to go into their cabins. When they have thus taken away the weapons, the women sometimes go into the woods, where they conceal themselves, with their children, not venturing to appear until the effects of the debauch is past; and in the course of which the men generally fight and beat each other with the poles that support their bark tents or lodges.'"

Then we have introduced the small-pox, and that, with the aid we humanely lent one nation (by our forces) to exterminate another, to us, entirely unoffending party; and the Christian use we made (as spies) of those servants of God that were admitted among them, as messengers of peace, to teach them the way to Him; has urged on pretty effectually the *civilizing* work of extermination. And thus it is that innumerable tribes of our fellow-beings, who covered a space of many thousands of miles, are, in the year 1825, reduced (and are reducing daily, more and more), to 50,000. Good God, what—is the population of a continent reduced to 50,000—to less than the number of the inhabitants of some of our suburban parishes. Is it thus we proffer them a religion of peace and benevolence, and profess to teach them brotherly love and good will to all, and point them the path to heaven? We boast that that religion has civilized Europe; and that the purity of it, among ourselves, has made us more powerful and civilized than all other nations; and yet, with the words of that religion in our mouths, and with the profession of diffusing its blessings among poor ignorant savages, not conversion but depopulation has marked our footsteps: nor ours alone—the states of North America continue to follow, in their national independence, the example we taught them in their state of colonization.

But we will let Dr. Morse, in his Indian Report to the American Government in 1820, shew the state to which our suffering brethren are reduced; and the remembrance they have of the causes of their desolation.

"It cannot be doubted, indeed, but that the Indians, for successive generations, have looked upon the Whites as a fraudulent, unjust, and immoral race; preaching what they did not practice, and overreaching their red brethren upon every occasion, and by all the means in their power. We need

need not, therefore, be surprised to find that the Indians do not scruple, even at the present day, to express, through their chiefs, their decided reluctance to receive the instructions of the missionaries: and this fact ought to operate as an indispensable ground for using the utmost caution in every endeavour to convert them.

"There is a passage in Dr. Morse's Indian Report to the American Government, which appears closely connected with this subject. The zealous and benevolent feelings of that writer have naturally made him very sanguine with regard to the measures he has suggested for the improvement of the Indians; but can it escape observation, that in the very first speech which he addressed to them in consequence of his mission (in June 1820), while he was holding out to that unfortunate race his cheering prospects of the future, most melancholy—may we not add most galling—were the truths told to them of the past!

"Brothers, your father, the President of the United States, with whom I have conversed on the present state of the Indians who live under his jurisdiction, and with many pious Christians also, far and near, are thinking of you for good; and are now engaged in devising together the best means to promote your welfare. We perceive that your numbers and your strength are diminishing; that, from being a numerous and powerful people, spread over a wide and fertile country, in which was plenty of game for your support, you have become few and feeble; that you possess but small tracts of land, compared with what your fathers possessed; and your game, on which you formerly depended upon for your support, is gone. We see that there is no place on earth where you and your brethren can go and dwell, unmolested, in the state in which your fathers lived. We see that you cannot many years longer live in any part of the United States in the hunter-state. The white people will push their settlements in every direction, and destroy your game and take away your best lands. You have not strength to defend yourselves, were you disposed to make war with the white people: they have become too powerful to be resisted, or restrained in their course.

"In these circumstances, your father, the president, and the good white people, extensively feel for you. We perceive that you are cast down and discouraged, that you are perplexed, and know not what to do. Your situation, and that of your red brethren generally, has lately excited an unusual interest. I am authorised to say to you, that the American nation, the civil as well as the religious part of it, are now ready to extend to you the hand of sincere friendship, to aid you in rising from your depressed state; and in the best ways which can be devised, to save you from

that ruin which seems inevitable in your present course, and to cause you to share with us all the blessings, both civil and religious, which we ourselves enjoy. We fully believe, from the recent events of Providence, that God has great blessings in store for you and the rest of your red brethren in our country, if you will accept them: and that you may yet 'see good days, according to the days in which you have seen evil.' This is our most ardent desire. Let not then your spirits sink within you. Hope in God, who is able to save and to bless you. Trust in him and he will not leave you, but will be the health of your countenance, a refuge from all your troubles, a present help in time of need."

The result of this conference was by no means satisfactory. Captain Pollard, indeed (a chief of the mock-converted Senecas), acknowledged, that such was their situation that they *must* have the gospel; and stated, that "houses for religious worship, and for schools, were built among them for their use; and that when once built *they remain.*" But Saguoaha, or Red-Jacket, refused to give an immediate answer; but some months after transmitted to the governor and state of New York a speech, in which the following are some of the grievances complained of:

"The first subject to which we would call the attention of the governor, is the depredation daily committed by the white people upon the most valuable timber on our reservations. This has been a subject of complaint for many years: but now, and particularly at this season of the year, it has become an alarming evil, and calls for the immediate interposition of the governor in our behalf.

"Our next subject of complaint is the frequent theft of our horses and cattle by the whites, and their habit of taking and using them when they please, and without our leave. These are evils which seem to increase upon us, and call loudly for redress.

"Another evil arising from the pressure of the whites upon us, and our unavoidable communication with them, is the frequency with which our Indians are thrown into gaol, and that too for the most trifling causes. This is very galling to our feelings, and should not be allowed to the extent to which our white neighbours, in order to gratify their bad passions, now carry this practice.

"In our hunting and fishing, too, we are greatly interrupted: our venison is stolen from the trees where we have hung it to be reclaimed after the chase; our hunting camps have been fired into, and we have been warned that we should no longer

longer be permitted to pursue the deer in those forests which were so lately our own. The fish which, in the Buffalo and Tonnewanto Creeks, used to supply us with food, are now, by the dams and other obstructions of the white people, prevented from multiplying, and we are almost entirely deprived of that accustomed sustenance.

"Our great father, the president, has recommended to our young men to be industrious, to plough, and to sow. This we have done, and we are thankful for the advice, and for the means he has afforded us of carrying it into effect: we are happier in consequence of it.

"But another thing recommended to us has created great confusion amongst us, and is making us a quarrelsome and divided people; and that is the introduction of preachers into our nation. These Black-robos* contrive to get consent of some of the Indians to preach among us; and whenever this is the case, confusion and disorder are sure to follow, and the encroachment of the whites upon our land is the invariable consequence. The governor must not think hard of me for speaking thus of the preachers. I have observed their progress, and when I look back to see what has taken place of old, I perceive that whenever they came among the Indians, they were forerunners of their dispersion; that they introduced the white people on their lands, by whom they were robbed and plundered of their property; and that the Indians were sure to dwindle and decrease, and be driven back, in proportion to the number of preachers that came among them."

"When Mr. Mahew, about the middle of the seventeenth century, requested permission of a Narraganset sachem to preach to his Indians, the chief replied,—'*Go and teach the English to be good first.*'—And when Dr. Boudinot, a corresponding member of the Scottish Society for the Propagation of Christianity, made a similar attempt in the Delaware nation, the chiefs replied, that 'when the whites had restored their *black* people to freedom and happiness, the *red* men would listen to their missionaries.'"

Mr. Halkett next alludes to the mistaken efforts of our missionaries to convert the Indians; and clearly shews that if they really wish to lead these blind people to a knowledge of Jesus Christ, all sects must co-operate; the Catholic must not anathematize the Protestants, and the Protestant must not traduce and ridicule the Catholics, and then the poor savage will not reply to the instructions of the missionary,

"How can I agree with you when you do not agree among yourselves?" But if it is only devout submission to the will of God they wish to teach them, the following prayer of a miserable Indian, after the loss of his wife and child, might shew that they are not, of themselves, of necessity, very much out of the way of truth:

"O Great Spirit, who governest the Sun and the Moon, who created the elk, the otter, and the beaver, be appeased, and do not any longer continue enraged against me. Be content with the misfortunes I have suffered. I had a wife—thou hast taken her from me. I had a child, whom I loved as myself—it is gone, for so was thy pleasure. Is that not enough? Bestow on me henceforward as much good as I now experience evil; or, if thou art not satisfied with what I now suffer, make me die, for in this state I can live no longer."

But we will conclude (our space not permitting further extracts), by recommending the book itself to the attention of our readers, as replete with interest and fruitful of instruction, with respect to the very different system which must be pursued, if ever we hope effectually to introduce either Christianity or civilization among these almost exterminated natives of the woods and wilds of America.

For the Monthly Magazine.

ORIGINAL ACCOUNT of PERNAMBUCO, in the BRAZILS; from a Manuscript "*Voyage to the Brazils and Mediterranean,*" performed in the year 1810.

THE great jealousy which the Portuguese have observed, from time immemorial, in all their commercial dealings, has ever induced them to prohibit foreigners visiting this coast; and, before the period when the Prince Regent emigrated, with his court, to Rio Janeiro, if any foreign vessel was discovered upon it, she was liable to confiscation, and her crew to imprisonment. But, since this has taken place, as mankind in general go from one extreme to the other, we have had free access to all their ports; and, to say the truth, we are now allowed, like the Jews in Turkey, to monopolize nearly the whole of their trade, even the coasting part of it. Previous to this event, we were so little acquainted with the Brazils, that, in most of our maps, this place is called "*Olinda, or Pernambuco,*" though they are, in fact, two separate and distinct places,—the first a city, and the second a populous town, distant from each other at least three miles.

Pernambuco

* The usual Indian appellation for the missionaries.

Pernambuco is a large and populous town, containing about 60,000 people, and carries on a great foreign and domestic trade. The coast near it is very low; and the country, well clothed with woods in perpetual verdure, contrasted with the white cottages scattered along the shore, the Indians fishing in their jungadas or canoes, and the beautiful serene sky, afford to the European, as he approaches it, a most pleasing prospect. The town stands on a great extent of ground, and many of the houses are well built, chiefly of stone. The streets are wide and spacious, the churches are truly magnificent, and the images they contain are immensely valuable. It is supposed that the religious form one-eighth part of the population, and of the continual crowd passing through the streets, they make no small portion. These people are dressed according to the orders they profess, Carthusians, Greyfriars, &c. One of these orders, the Carmelites, is particularly distinguishable, not only by being externally clothed very well, but by their fair round bellies, which appear to be, in general, well lined, and much of the same cut with that of Sir John Falstaff. Nearly half of the inhabitants are slaves imported from Angola, who are very humanely treated by the Portuguese, and make good and faithful servants. There is a market appropriated purposely to these unfortunate beings, where two or three hundred are commonly seen huddled together, squatted on their hams like monkeys, and completely *in cuerpo*. They are thus exposed for sale, having been previously rubbed over with a species of oil, which gives them a glossy appearance; and, in addition, are decorated with bead necklaces and bracelets, to set them off to advantage. They seem to regard white people as a superior sort of beings, and look on one as he passes with a most vacant stare. Pernambuco stands on two islands, and is connected together by two bridges, one of which is a most beautiful structure, built by the Dutch, when they took this place from the Portuguese, in 1670. It consists of fifteen arches, under which runs a strong and rapid river, that comes many hundred miles down the country. On either side of this bridge are shops full of European merchandize, particularly English manufactures, or, as they are called by the Portuguese, "*fazendas Inglesas*." It is only in the middle that a person knows he is on a bridge. He then

beholds an opening, which, during the day, is often full of passengers, enjoying the cool refreshing breeze that comes down the river, and enjoying the prospect, which, from this spot, is truly delightful. The river is seen winding up as far as Olinda, which is seated on a hill. On either bank are beautiful white cottages, intermixed with mangrove and cocoa-trees, and fruitful vineyards. The Indians are seen paddling down the river, with their unwieldy canoes; the fishermen on the beach, drying their nets: while Nature, displaying her gayest verdure, gives altogether a *coup-d'œil* which it is impossible to describe. The other is a very long wooden bridge, in which there is nothing at all remarkable, more than being quite open to the breeze down the river; on which account it is much resorted to in the evening, especially by the English.

Most of the houses in Pernambuco are lofty; and, instead of glass windows, have green lattices, which have a pretty effect, especially as all their houses are white, and frequently surrounded with beautiful evergreens. All these windows are prominent, not unlike the Elizabethan windows seen in some of our old country towns. During the morning, the better sort of Portuguese are seen leaning out of them, muffled up in their long cloaks, and exhibiting a genuine picture of indolence. They never live on the ground-floor, which is commonly used for cellars or shops. The ladies are only seen towards the evening, peeping through the lattices, very few ever appearing in the streets, and then closely veiled, and in a kind of curtained hammock, carried by two slaves on a long pole. They are remarkably partial to the English, which occasions much jealousy; though I do not think the Portuguese are so much addicted to this passion as they are represented to be. There are a good many coffee-houses here, which are known by a small round board with *Casa de Caffé* written upon it. The principal one is kept by a priest, and is the common resort of all the merchants, serving them as an exchange. Good wine, sangaree, and a tolerable breakfast, can be procured here at all hours of the day; and the billiard and backgammon tables are well frequented, especially on a Sunday.

The Portuguese merchants are rich and respectable. In all their transactions, payment is made at the time of purchase: they have no idea of credit. Most of our English

English merchants are young men, sent out as agents from houses in England: they are a very wild set. It always appeared a mystery to me, how they contrived to live in such a gay style on a trifling commission; but I have invariably remarked, that English agents abroad live much superior to their employers at home; and, while the latter become bankrupts, they, in general, get rich.

The harbour of Pernambuco is wonderfully convenient. It is formed by a natural pier, extending, in a direct line, many miles: this is a coral reef, so exactly straight and even, that one would almost imagine it the work of art. The vessels lie alongside each other, in tiers, moored head and stern, about half pistol-shot from the shore, and close to this reef, which, at high-water spring tides, is nearly on a level with the surface of the sea, and forms an excellent barrier. This place is in lat. 8° South; consequently, the heat is excessive, the thermometer frequently being at 90° in the shade. During the night it is always calm, with a good deal of lightning. About nine in the morning, the sea-breeze comes gradually in, which is strongest about noon, when by degrees it dies away into a calm, that generally takes place towards sunset.

Pernambuco is very well fortified in appearance, but it would in reality make a poor resistance. No one can conceive such a set of ragged fellows as their soldiers, no two of whom are dressed in the same uniform. An officer on duty, with his guard, would form an admirable group for such a pencil as Hogarth's. They can raise about 5,000 military, comprizing the militia; however, the greatest part of these are blacks.

The governor of Pernambuco is generally a Portuguese nobleman, and lives in great state. A new one comes every two or three years from Rio Janeiro.

The churches at Pernambuco are very large buildings; they contain some excellent paintings, and each of them has a number of chancels, or chapels, dedicated to particular saints, which on certain days are ornamented with flowers. They are quite open, having no pews, and the people either stand or kneel. All are very richly furnished. One large consecrated lamp is continually burning over the high altar, and also a great number of tapers in candlesticks, about seven or eight feet high, some of them of massy silver. The glimmering of these candles at noon-day has a curious

and rather solemn effect. The doors are generally open, and a good many people are seen on their knees at prayers before the different saints, others receiving the sacrament, some confessing, and *padres* (priests) gliding from one door to another, or traversing, with a silent sanctified deportment, the different parts of the church. The confessional chairs, of which there are generally six or eight in a church, are made very large and high, so that the priest is not seen. Those who wish to confess (mostly women) go singly, and kneeling down opposite a lattice-work in the side of it, ease their burthened consciences, and get absolution. Besides the church itself, there are always, under the same roof, apartments for the *padres*, in which they have their cells, and a large room, where they dine together. There are numbers of helpless old women, who live constantly in the churches, and are subsisted by what is left at the tables of the priests, who have the character of being very hospitable to foreigners: for a trifling sum they will not only shew the relics of their churches, but also where the most beautiful and courteous ladies reside.

I cannot say how the religious are supported, but great numbers are always seen in the streets, dressed in their robes, soliciting alms; for which purpose, they carry a small square box, with the figure of Christ, or some particular saint, painted upon it. I observed, that notwithstanding they consider the English as heretics, they do not scruple to return a benediction for their money; and if a Portuguese and an Englishman are standing together in the street, they will never fail to accost the Englishman first. In every street there are different images of the Virgin Mary and the saints, which on particular days are exposed to view, superbly illuminated with a number of large candles. About eight in the evening, the children in the neighbourhood assemble round them, and sing hymns: this has a pleasing effect, especially as they keep time with great exactness, and have a person to direct them, who rings a little bell whilst they are singing particular parts.

Twice every day, about ten in the morning, and seven in the evening, at the tolling of a bell, every thing in an instant is at a stand. Men, women, and children, whether in the streets or the houses, instantly pull off their hats, cross themselves, and say a short prayer.

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This continues about a minute. At the second tolling, every thing goes on again as usual. During this time a particular part of the mass is being performed in the grand church. Although this has a striking effect, the positions, people are sometimes caught in, are very ludicrous: it appears almost the instantaneous effect of magic. It was my good fortune to be there during Lent, which is most rigidly observed. The illuminations on the churches, fireworks and processions, during Easter, surpass any thing of the kind I ever heard of: it is impossible not to be sensibly struck with the immense value of the images displayed on the occasion.

Whenever a slave happens to die before he is baptised, they do not allow him burial, but his body is thrown down on the sea shore, a little below the town, where it is left a prey to bustards and wild beasts. In a walk along the beach to Olinda, I saw no less than five of these bodies laying a little above high water mark; the birds flock round them like the crows in England round a dead horse.

The Portuguese have but few amusements. The principal one I saw, was the theatre, which was only opened one night, when the Governor honoured it with his presence. A number of soldiers patrolled the different parts of the house to preserve order. Every thing passed on very well, until about the middle, when a song being feebly encouraged by two or three Portuguese in the pit, an officer ordered silence in a very peremptory voice, which not according with the ideas of some English captains, they resumed the cry of encore, in which most of the Portuguese (thus encouraged) ventured to join. A commotion took place—the play finished—the guard was called in, through which our countrymen effected a safe retreat, leaving their allies in the pit to be surrounded, made prisoners, and carried to the guard-house. The next day they were released by the Governor, who graciously condescended to pardon them. The theatre was never reopened.

Pernambuco is seated on very low ground, and quite surrounded by water, consequently intermittent rivers are very common. There is only one hospital, which consists of a very large room, with about thirty beds on each side, filled with wretches suffering under the most loathsome diseases. A man stands at the door to solicit the charity of pas-

sengers. When a patient dies, he is laid on a table, with a plate on his breast, for money to bury him; there are often four or five bodies at a time. Great numbers of slaves die, of the small-pox, on their first importation, and still more from the fever. The country, a few miles from the town, is full of thick impenetrable woods, dreadfully infested with wild beasts and reptiles, especially snakes, for the bite of which there is no cure, but death inevitably follows in a few hours.

This country also abounds with the most beautiful birds, some of which are as red as scarlet, and sing delightfully. Macaws and parrots are also very common, nearly every house having one or two at the door, and as they often set each other a chattering through a whole street, they make such a din that an Englishman would think he had got into a Welch market. In regard to the fishes on this coast, they are very numerous. The river, near Pernambuco, abounds with alligators, which are often very destructive; and that extraordinary fish the torpedo is frequently caught here. The electric power is so strong in this fish, that even the line, that catches him, conveys a slight shock.

Olinda is seated on a small hill, on the summit of which is a large monastery. The town is small, and though most of the merchants of Pernambuco have seats here, it is nevertheless very thinly peopled. The houses are beautiful white buildings, interspersed with delightful gardens; rising as they do, one above another, on the side of the hill, it is seen a great way off at sea. It contains little more than two monasteries and a nunnery, with a few poor people dependent on them. The church of the monastery on the hill being open, we entered to view its curiosities. In the middle of it lay the body of a black woman for interment. The images and gilt cornices were very grand. You can have no possible conception of the magnificence some of these places exhibit. We observed a large curtain that concealed something—we wished to see it—the slave who attended us at first hesitated, but on looking round, and perceiving none of the padres near, he ventured to draw it up. It was a most valuable crucifix of gold, as large as life: whilst describing its value, a priest came in—the slave, struck with terror, fell on his knees, and implored his pardon; I perceived it was of no avail, and therefore had recourse to artifice to save the

the poor fellow a flogging. I told him I was a Roman Catholic, and by good fortune I had a gold cross for a brooch in my bosom, I showed it him; on which he pardoned the slave, and shewed us all that we had not previously seen, especially some exquisite paintings on religious subjects. You cannot imagine a more romantic situation, or one which commands a more lovely prospect than this monastery, especially the church, which is the highest object on this part of the coast, and is visible far at sea. The Portuguese are an honest well-behaved people, remarkably attached to the English, but they are passionate in the extreme, and murders are very common—not for plunder, but revenge, or on sudden quarrel. One day I witnessed one of these take place, which almost chilled my blood. Happening to go down to the cotton wharf, I saw two men fighting; one of them gave the other a severe blow on the breast, which exasperated him so much, that he immediately drew a knife and cut his adversary across the abdomen. The unfortunate man expired in about five minutes, while the assassin took sanctuary in a neighbouring church, and in about a week afterwards I saw him looking at some English hardware in a shop window. It is too expensive for any one to undertake to bring a criminal to justice for a capital crime, and if he has taken sanctuary it is of no use. The Portuguese are sober, and tolerably industrious. Their seamen are remarkably good and faithful, and for English merchants, preferable to any other foreigners. The produce of the Brazils consists of gold, silver, diamonds, sugar, cotton, hides, ipecacuanha, sarsaparilla, fustic, rum, molasses, coffee, ginger, and many other valuable commodities; but the greater part of these articles are not importable into England, on account of our West-Indian possessions, the produce of which is nearly similar, but inferior in quality, and double the price of that brought from the Brazils.

For the Monthly Magazine.

POLITICAL ECONOMY and POPULATION.

—IMPORTANCE of the SCIENCE of POLITICAL ECONOMY.

YOUR Magazine embracing all subjects of importance, and being open to discussion, I am induced to request your insertion of the following observations.

A writer in the last number says, "the term political economist is some-

what of undefined import, respecting which no two persons will be found to agree, if two ever can be found to give any definition at all, which by the bye, judging from all that we have seen and heard on the subject, is problematical." This is, to be sure, a sad example of ignorance in one who assumes to teach others.

The whole of the article of your correspondent is founded on assumptions, and if analyzed would be found to be wholly erroneous. He says, "assuming, however, that, by political economist, is meant, *one who understands the relations and the right administration of the varied interests of society*:"—Here he gives a definition, not his own, but one that all political economists agree in, and have long agreed in, although it has not on every occasion been expressed in the same words. All agree, however, that political economy is distinct from politics in the usual acceptation of this word. Monsieur Say, who certainly is "one of the ablest political economists in Europe," and one who has, by his works, been the mean of propagating a knowledge of the science to a very considerable extent, says, "Politics, which is properly the name of the science by which societies are organized, has long been confounded with *political economy*, which teaches how wealth is formed, distributed, and consumed." *Traité d'économie politique*, 1814. 2d Ed. Discours Préliminaire. Mr. Ricardo will be found to agree with this definition. Mr. Ricardo, who wrote his invaluable book since Mons. Say published his second edition, availed himself of the further information which had been elicited, and assisted still further to perfect the science of political economy.

Mr. Mill, in his "*Elements of Political Economy*," says, "the science of political economy divides itself into two grand inquiries, that which relates to production, and that which relates to consumption; the laws of distribution constitute an intermediate inquiry between that which relates to production, and that which relates to consumption." Thus it appears, that the three most eminent writers agree with one another, and with your correspondent: they making the definitions to consist in words more precise; he his definition less precise, but more general. If, however, nothing more were implied by your correspondent than a definition of the words "*Political*"

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cal Economy," the subject would hardly be worth a remark; but it is plain that he means to be understood as expressing contempt for the science itself. There is great inconsistency in this; for, according to his own definition, it is a science of the greatest importance to mankind.

His inconsistency is not, however, uncommon: men bred up in prejudices cannot easily shake them off, and, if I do not greatly mistake, your correspondent has been so bred; and, from the style of his article, has, with all his prejudices about him, arrived at an age when men generally assume a tone of authority, which is but too often the enemy to an increase of knowledge.

The man of forty is not very likely to become a convert to new discoveries, which are directly opposed to his long-established prejudices. Some men are capable of acquiring new ideas at any age; but these are few in number. The generality of mankind, when they arrive at an age at which it has been usual to suppose a man's opinions are fixed, are seldom capable of entertaining new ideas, and consequently prone to condemn what they consider an innovation. No sooner is a discovery made, or an old one applied in a way different to that to which they have been accustomed, than they condemn it; and the reason is, that they cannot associate it with their old ideas, and cannot, therefore, understand it. If, for instance, you tell them, that a certain circumstance has been overlooked in a demonstration to which they have been accustomed, and that the demonstration is consequently erroneous, they will seldom be able to understand you. Certain words which have called up certain ideas will still excite those ideas; these will be associated with other ideas as usual, and from this association they will be unable to extricate themselves. They cannot break the association: and any attempt to take in new ideas must, inevitably, in such a man, produce confusion. He is, therefore, not teachable; he calls out nonsense, simply because he cannot comprehend. The task, the performance of which, to him, would be excessively painful, is laid aside, and if among others he find the least variance, on even the most unimportant point, he consoles himself with a delusion, and says, *on this subject* no two agree.

It is, then, with political economy as it has been with other sciences. Im-

provements have generally been received with reluctance. The old rejected them from prejudice; and they were acknowledged only because there were younger persons whose thirst for knowledge was greater, and whose prejudices were weaker than those of their elders.

Mr. McCulloch, in his excellent "*Discourse on the rise, progress, peculiar objects and importance of political economy*," gives a short account of the opinions which prevailed from the earliest times to the present day; and he explains the causes which "sufficiently account for the late rise in this science, and the little attention paid to it up to a very recent period." In page 8, he says,

"It is clear, however, that those who distrust the conclusions of political economy, because of the variety of systems that have been advanced to explain the phenomena, about which it is conversant, might, on the same ground, distrust the conclusions of almost every other science. The discrepancy between the various systems that have successively been sanctioned by the ablest physicians, chemists, natural philosophers and moralists, is quite as great as the discrepancy between those advanced by the ablest political economists. But who would therefore conclude, that medicine, chemistry, natural philosophy and morals, rest on no solid foundation? or that they are incapable of presenting us with a system of well-established and consentaneous truths? We do not refuse our assent to the demonstrations of Newton and La Place, because they are subversive of the hypotheses of Tycho Brahe, and Des Cartes; and why should we refuse our assent to the demonstrations of Smith and Ricardo, because they have subverted the false theories that were previously advanced respecting the sources and the distribution of wealth? Political economy has not been exempted from the common fate of the other sciences. None of them was instantaneously carried to perfection; more or less of error has always insinuated itself into the speculations of the earliest cultivators. But the errors, with which political economy was formerly infested, have now nearly disappeared; and a very few observations will suffice to shew that it really admits of as much certainty in its conclusions as any science founded on *fact* and *experiment* can possibly do."

Had political economy been well understood by our legislators, fifty years ago, it is quite impossible to say to what an extent the wealth and prosperity of this country would have increased. I do not mean by prosperity, the having even a large number of persons

sons in a state of comparative affluence, and another large number in poverty; but a state in which no one need be in absolute poverty. To this state a competent knowledge of the science of *political economy*, and of the *principle of population*, fifty years ago, might, by this time, have brought us. It is to this science that we owe the relaxation of our pernicious *navigation laws*—the new mode of *registering ships*—the opinions which, at length, begin to prevail against the abominable *corn-laws**—the *repeal of the laws against the emigration of artizans*—the *repeal of the laws against combinations of workmen*—the *repeal of the laws which prohibited the exportation of wool*, and many other wholesome measures. To an ignorance of this science, we owe our multitude of absurd laws, which nothing but a knowledge of political economy can extirpate, but which, most certainly, as this knowledge spreads, will gradually be extirpated. To expect good laws from the best of men, who are ignorant of the science of political economy, is to expect what is utterly impossible. Without a competent knowledge of this science, legislation must continue to be what it has, until very lately, been—a game of expedients, embarrassing and confounding the community, loading the statute book with pernicious and contradictory laws, impeding commerce, narrowing trade, contracting intellect and promoting litigation. The evils which have been inflicted on the world, from ignorance of the principles of *political economy*, have, indeed, been dreadful, and will hereafter be matter of astonishment to our better-instructed progeny.

A wise legislator said some months ago, that he could not give his assent to the doctrines of Mr. Ricardo; for as Mr. Ricardo had shewn that Adam Smith was incorrect, so some other person might shew that Mr. Ricardo was incorrect. Here was much such an assertion as that used by your correspondent. "They disagree among themselves, so I will not take the trouble to ascertain what the facts of the case really are, but will condemn the whole, and by my example, persuade others to remain, as I am, ignorant." This is not, however, the way in which a good or a wise man would proceed. Such a man

would say, "Here is a science, or a pretended science, about which men seem interested; I will therefore examine it; will ascertain what are its merits or its demerits: if it be really useful, I will do my best to promote it; but if, on the contrary, it be pernicious, I will expose it. I will shew in what particulars it is erroneous and pernicious, and thus guard people against it."

No one has done this in respect to the science of political economy; and yet, if its doctrines be erroneous, there cannot be much difficulty in exposing them. It is now three years since the first edition of "*ELEMENTS OF POLITICAL ECONOMY*, by JAMES MILL, *Author of the History of British India*," was published. A very large number of the book has been sold, and no one has been found to controvert the principles maintained in that small book. It treats of Labour, Capital, Rent, Wages, Profit, Commerce, Trade, Taxation and Population. It explains the nature of each of those important subjects, and shews their bearing on each other. Its demonstrations are clear and convincing, and are calculated to do unspeakable service to mankind.

On a subject of such vast importance, it is not too much to ask those who deny it, to refute the doctrines contained in Mr. Mill's book. For instance, a head might be selected, thus:—

RENT of Land. Political economists say, that the price of corn, and other farm-produce, is regulated by *land which pays no RENT*. This, Mr. Mill demonstrates.

WAGES of Labour, then, he says, are regulated by the "proportion between population and capital!"

PROFITS. He defines the word, shews how profits arise, and how they are affected by wages.

TAXES. He shews how these operate to injure a nation, how they affect trade and commerce: and thus he goes on through his subject.

If, then, the doctrines he teaches in the school of Political Economy—if these, the received and acknowledged doctrines, be erroneous, nothing can be so easy as a logical refutation, and nothing can be more useful.

If the political economists are in error, expose that error, and put an end to it. Surely it would be much wiser to do this, than to decry the science by vague generalities, or oppose it by practical matters, which prove nothing against it.

F. P.

* On which subject, see more in the Topic of the Month, in our number for Feb. 1, Vol. LIX., p. 1.

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NUMBER — POPULATION

**UNPRODUCTIVE
INEFFECTIVE
PASSIVE**

{ Natural Produce 1
 { Artificial Do. 2
 { Occupation 3
 { Interchange 4
 { Teaching 5
 { Service 6
 { Infancy 7
 { Infirmary 7
 { Age 7
 { Passiveness 8

CONSUMPTION

The Soil { Pasture — Food & Do. 1
— Agriculture } Tillage 1
 { Horticulture { — Food 1
 { — Ornament 2

MINES { — Fuel 1
 { — Material for Manufacture 1

MANUFACTURES 2 } *Necessity*
— *Articles of* } *Utility*
 } *Ornament*
 } *Luxury*

BUYERS & SELLERS { *Internal Commodities*
 Merchants & Dealers in { *External Do.*
 AGENTS — *Commission, Factorage, Brokerage.*

CARRIERS	{	By Water	{	<i>Rivers</i>
			{	<i>Seas</i>
			{	<i>Ocean</i>
			{	<i>Canals</i>
	{	Land	{	<i>Carts, Waggon</i>
			{	<i>Coaches</i>

ACTIVE6

Household
Casual
Sensual
Legal
Professional
Clerical
Judicial
Administrative
Protective
Subjugative

EDUCATION 5

INFANT	{	Elementary, Progressive
		Physical { Calling Handicraft Mechanics
ADULT	{	Mental { Teachers Practitioners Professors Attainment
		Intellectual

PASSIVE 8

Rent { Lands
Houses
Casualties

PROFITS

Annuities { State
Mortgage
Bonds
Public Works

CUR-RENCY { **PROPERTY** { *Intrinsic, or*
Non - Intrinsic
USE, Token of Interchange
ABUSE, Trading Commodity

DEBTOR { Bankrupts
and { Insolvents
CREDITOR { Courts of Request
{ Arbitration

SUPER-AGENCY } **ANIMAL** } Horses
 } **ELEMENTAL** } Air - Wind
 } } Water
 } } Steam
 } } Gas
MECHANICAL Machinery

LOCAL

		(MECHANICAL Machinery)
{	COMPULSORY	{ Maintenance of Rights
		{ Do. of Paupers?
		{ Do. of Roads, Watch, Lights &c.
{	VOLUNTARY	{ Punishment of Crime
		{ Public Institutions — <i>Charitable</i>
		{ Private Aid — <i>Charity</i>

ECCLESIASTICAL, Tithes &c.
MILITARY, Courts Martial
NAVAL, Court of Admiralty

GOVERNMENT { DEMOCRATICAL — *Elective*
ARISTOCRATICAL *Representa*
OLIGARCHIAL *Self Elective*
MONARCHIAL *Limited &c.*
IMPERIAL — *Absolute*

PREVENTIVE { Moral Effect — *Education*
 { Vigilance — *Judicious Police*

RETRIBUTIVE { Fine
Imprisonment
Banishment
Forfeiture

☞ The terms *Capital, Stock, Value, Wealth, Wages, Labour, Colonies, Exchange, Money, Taxation*, will be duly noticed.

STATEMENT of the Official Value of MERCHANDIZE Imported into all the Ports of the UNITED KINGDOM of GREAT BRITAIN & IRELAND, from all parts of the WORLD, in each of the six YEARS, 1817—1822, distinguishing the several Countries from whence Imported, and the proportion from each respective Country.

COUNTRIES from whence IMPORTED.	1817.	1818.	1819.	1820.	1821.	1822.
West INDIES	8,326,927	8,608,790	8,188,540	8,354,512	8,367,477	8,019,764
East Do. & CHINA	7,687,278	7,337,690	7,537,563	7,562,648	6,233,570	5,106,400
Whale Fishery.	332,734	444,520	398,405	551,703	537,443	362,464
Total W. & E. Ind. China & Fishery.	16,346,939	16,391,000	16,124,508	16,468,863	15,138,490	13,488,628
GERMANY	687,927	1,265,910	576,067	641,527	617,218	728,068
ITALY	751,162	1,306,457	972,647	839,799	981,590	1,176,246
RUSSIA	2,241,365	2,904,326	2,589,922	2,542,533	1,963,079	2,619,576
HOLLAND	740,044	1,206,278	635,279	593,361	805,850	889,206
PORTUGAL & MA.	632,482	768,180	509,572	465,273	480,609	546,173
GIBRALTAR	51,442	61,210	14,572	29,145	83,830	56,704
SPAIN & CANARI.	1,034,071	1,333,930	875,392	971,512	974,172	934,938
FLANDERS	122,498	571,903	203,856	99,199	145,339	260,125
PRUSSIA	821,565	1,426,412	624,125	729,683	357,357	542,573
FRANCE	527,866	1,162,424	642,012	775,132	865,617	878,273
TURKEY	188,904	381,796	266,548	426,685	375,630	396,382
DENMARK	158,670	376,364	170,786	141,230	42,112	43,710
SWEDEN	151,691	214,479	164,800	117,705	109,680	137,470
NORWAY	78,911	119,927	101,900	47,037	58,260	83,881
MALTA	19,916	61,420	83,270	21,265	17,397	18,509
IONIAN Isles. . . .	58,212	89,196	49,618	95,318	86,194	86,422
TOTAL Europe	8,265,694	13,250,220	8,480,367	8,536,405	7,963,936	9,398,257
U. S. of AMERICA	3,315,197	3,663,484	2,840,372	3,860,878	3,831,057	4,161,542
BRAZILS	817,222	1,080,543	952,202	1,294,025	1,181,858	1,047,526
FOR. West Indies	758,043	850,042	774,117	798,620	956,554	566,414
South AMERICA	126,316	400,568	290,645	233,710	332,364	493,705
Bri. N. AMERICA	694,010	787,996	889,783	949,655	948,072	918,357
NEW HOLLAND	50	5,112	6,900	5,030	22,640	16,592
Cape of G. HOPE	167,582	126,225	81,094	81,590	86,167	114,685
Coast of AFRICA	180,273	158,865	179,548	95,920	221,757	166,080
British ISLES * ..	148,680	159,579	151,680	144,178	151,837	154,010
PRIZE GOODS, &c.	14,288	11,557	5,584	2,068	2,978	4,966
Total AMERICA,						
AFRICA, &c.	6,221,664	7,243,970	6,131,934	7,465,677	7,735,293	7,643,779
Grand TOTAL.	30,834,330	36,885,182	50,776,810	52,470,945	50,837,712	50,530,673
Propo. into Ireland	917,979	1,065,384	1,121,920	953,054	1,113,540	1,128,856

* The above, and four following Statements, have been compiled from a return made to Parliament in the Session of 1824, (Paper No. 274.) and the results which they exhibit are so extraordinary, as to excite in the mind of most persons an utter disregard, by their apparent incredibility. It will be seen by the fifth following Statement, that in the six Years 1817—1822, the Official Value of the EXPORTS to EUROPE are represented as exceeding the Official Value of the IMPORTS from thence, by the enormous and incredible Amount of £ 110,654,070!!!. Is the fact really so, and if so, how has the excess of Export been equalized? It is not the mere display of Figures and Amounts, although sufficiently interesting in themselves, that is the object of these Illustrations; but by analysis and demonstration, to ascertain and to exhibit the nature and tendency of the Commercial relations of GREAT BRITAIN with the several Nations of the World, in an intelligible and conclusive point of view. It seems desirable, therefore, in the first place, to shew what is meant by the term Official Value, which implies a fixed Value assigned as far back as 1694, to each article Imported and Exported, and may therefore be considered as denoting QUANTITY, rather than Value, and may or may not have a relation to the CURRENT VALUE of the present time. In addition to the Imports specified in the American Division of the above Statement a considerable quantity of Produce is shipped direct from thence to the Continent of EUROPE on British Account, by which it may be supposed that the external Commercial relations of GREAT BRITAIN are somewhat less ruinous than represented in the following Statements; as regards the transactions with South America the Brazils & Foreign West Indies, it may be so, but, it is important to know that whatever additional advantages may accrue by indirect means to a part, makes the aggregate result worse, rather than better; the advantage of the one part being only an abstraction from some other part.

STATEMENT of the Official Value of the PRODUCE & MANUFACTURES of the UNITED KINGDOM of GREAT BRITAIN & IRELAND, EXPORTED from thence to all parts of the WORLD, in each of the Six Years, 1817 — 1822, distinguishing the several Countries to which Exported, and the proportion to each respective Country.

to which EXPORTED.	1817.	1818.	1819.	1820.	1821.	1822.
<i>Bri. West Indies</i>	6,632,708	5,717,216	4,395,214	4,241,312	4,941,034	4,126,974
<i>East Do. & China</i>	2,462,948	2,684,410	1,999,481	2,978,457	3,655,005	3,569,326
<i>Whale Fishery</i>	7			1,050	486	
Total 1st. Class	9,095,743	8,401,626	6,394,695	7,220,819	8,596,525	7,696,300
<i>Germany</i>	5,443,889	5,830,948	5,582,158	6,908,477	6,316,998	6,497,435
<i>Italy</i>	2,499,346	3,395,475	3,204,165	3,157,972	2,886,197	4,575,470
<i>Russia</i>	2,259,668	2,309,473	1,630,393	2,519,907	1,524,747	823,987
<i>Holland</i>	1,186,996	1,055,478	1,158,129	1,210,454	1,068,316	1,216,496
<i>Portugal Az. & M.</i>	1,657,184	1,370,655	1,523,907	1,808,879	2,595,385	2,650,851
<i>Gibraltar</i>	997,282	671,282	921,008	1,534,094	1,581,709	2,437,258
<i>Spain & Canaries</i>	521,136	408,481	427,929	513,688	318,400	417,182
<i>Flanders</i>	622,935	698,519	693,335	692,532	863,549	1,000,108
<i>Prussia</i>	531,583	547,718	443,054	708,281	362,586	366,283
<i>France</i>	596,753	318,864	248,078	334,067	382,404	346,271
<i>Turkey</i>	503,536	882,136	652,459	787,850	497,343	904,522
<i>Denmark</i>	265,508	188,270	184,923	171,869	164,967	182,916
<i>Sweden</i>	36,744	41,504	41,591	30,653	32,287	35,471
<i>Norway</i>	43,063	83,836	65,761	66,253	65,381	54,098
<i>Malta</i>	730,413	557,133	444,056	440,429	294,291	394,966
<i>Ionian Isles</i>	2,134	11,145	5,974	14,041	6,806	9,187
Total 2nd. Class.	17,898,172	18,370,953	17,226,912	20,899,447	18,961,367	21,912,500
<i>U. S. of America</i>	6,640,394	8,578,990	4,375,409	4,020,043	6,619,678	7,312,107
<i>Brazils</i>	2,268,896	3,159,897	1,864,309	2,233,133	2,115,503	1,919,496
<i>For. West Indies</i>	1,811,754	1,473,794	1,096,629	1,191,906	1,517,328	1,282,959
<i>South America</i>	708,001	758,161	408,746	885,985	1,118,105	1,948,907
<i>Bri. N. America</i>	1,111,832	1,382,661	1,611,907	1,283,975	1,076,857	1,314,397
<i>New Holland</i>	14,129	9,618	40,914	85,129	100,878	181,426
<i>Cape of G. Hope</i>	218,854	175,339	159,037	224,764	261,400	176,711
<i>Coast of Africa</i>	137,342	150,641	131,561	130,995	206,071	282,341
<i>Guern. Jers. Man</i>	206,378	225,711	224,053	215,004	258,998	259,389
Total 3rd. Class	13,117,688	15,914,814	9,912,567	10,270,936	13,274,817	14,627,734
TOTAL B. & I.P. & Manufactures	40,111,427	42,687,392	33,534,176	38,391,202	40,832,711	44,237,533
<i>Colonial</i> } 1 Class	702,442	778,082	674,397	614,779	1,032,842	563,703
<i>& Foreign</i> } 2 Do.	8,826,482	9,075,744	8,377,768	8,923,563	8,497,471	7,578,610
<i>Produce</i> } 3 Do.	763,800	1,006,033	853,042	1,019,570	1,099,377	1,085,276
Grand Total of EXPORTS.	50,404,111	53,547,250	43,439,360	48,947,113	51,462,400	53,464,122

As regards the Real Value of the products IMPORTED, (Vide preceding note) on referring to the Statement of the Value assigned to each article Imported, in each of the Ten Years 1814—1823, it will be seen, that Silk, Cotton-Wool, Sheep & Lamb's Wool, Flax, Hemp, Tallow, Timber Deals, &c. Wines, Hides & Skins, and the unenumerated articles, constitute the bulk of the aggregate amount assigned to the articles Imported from all parts except from British Possessions in the West and East Indies, China, and the Fisheries; the Imports from which, as will be shown hereafter, do not in the slightest degree tend to equalize the excess of Exports to any of the other parts of the World.

As a guide to the actual Real Value of the articles specified above, the actual Quantities of each in tale, weight, and measure, will be found specified in following Statements, and in succeeding Statements there will be found a specification of the Amount of Customs Duty levied on each article Imported, with the rate at which each article is charged with duty, whereby the actual Quantities, and thereby the actual Real Values, may be ascertained.

Although the present Money Value of most of the articles enumerated above will be seen in several instances very considerably to exceed the Value assigned to them in the Statement of Official Values of each article Imported in each of the Ten Years 1814—1823, the aggregate Real Value will prove not materially, if at all, to exceed the aggregate of the Official Value as represented in the preceding Statement; that is, in so far as it constitutes an EQUIVALENT against the Real Value of Commodities EXPORTED.

STATEMENT of the Declared REAL VALUE of the PRODUCE & MANUFACTURES of the UNITED KINGDOM of Great Britain & Ireland, EXPORTED from thence to all parts of the WORLD, in each of the six Years 1817—1822, distinguishing the several Countries to which Exported, and the proportion to each respective COUNTRY.

COUNTRIES to which EXPORTED.	1817. £	1818. £	1819. £	1820. £	1821. £	1822. £
Bri. West Indies	5,890,200	6,021,626	4,841,252	4,197,761	4,320,586	3,439,817
East Do. & CHINA	3,705,964	3,863,131	2,653,527	3,693,168	4,151,678	3,771,222
Whale Fishery	13			1,034	384	
Total 1st. Class	9,596,177	9,884,757	7,494,779	7,891,963	8,472,648	7,211,038
Germany.....	5,433,010	6,176,270	5,646,569	6,110,356	5,282,279	5,234,920
Italy	2,240,987	3,147,648	2,692,797	2,441,958	2,161,860	3,137,698
Russia	3,045,475	2,844,635	1,793,681	2,672,214	1,590,719	837,678
Holland	1,337,693	1,187,042	1,118,427	1,118,108	947,416	1,011,393
Portugal Az. & Ma.	1,888,507	1,553,428	1,642,714	1,668,130	2,153,321	1,890,130
Gibraltar.....	861,128	674,72	790,961	1,191,095	1,217,983	1,660,352
Spain & the Canaries	727,388	602,493	583,633	626,194	324,504	395,643
Flanders	731,660	757,787	654,568	632,694	723,174	801,097
Prussia	518,530	513,874	386,755	492,409	274,449	234,185
France	1,003,487	369,504	299,493	390,744	438,244	437,009
Turkey	451,299	806,531	537,335	551,792	360,214	521,574
Malta	509,870	464,306	344,126	257,040	198,637	222,340
Ionian Isles.....	2,325	11,557	4,796	12,658	6,511	9,240
Denmark	250,834	189,889	177,410	164,277	135,403	129,235
Sweden	43,831	52,883	47,650	33,410	32,015	35,113
Norway	47,051	86,874	70,337	6,424	58,705	43,948
TOTAL 2nd. Class	19,093,574	19,439,382	16,790,652	18,429,504	15,903,442	16,601,562
U. S. of America	6,930,360	9,451,010	4,929,816	3,875,286	6,214,875	6,865,263
Brazils	2,034,696	3,180,542	1,937,330	2,101,030	1,858,357	1,523,812
For. West Indies	1,279,782	1,169,610	892,307	939,782	1,050,778	868,041
South America	616,642	815,115	438,998	820,261	1,083,880	1,642,903
Bri. N. America	1,515,317	1,768,153	2,020,061	1,559,104	1,141,278	1,338,903
New Holland	19,422	13,546	61,492	117,123	126,114	213,574
Cape of Good Hope	260,541	215,707	183,584	248,182	280,683	176,677
Coast of Africa	145,818	174,879	132,710	145,117	201,435	208,267
Gunn. Jer. & Man	326,500	355,731	329,670	296,602	324,728	315,052
TOTAL 3rd. Class	13,129,077	17,144,395	10,925,967	10,102,496	12,282,128	13,162,491
GRAND TOTAL	41,818,828	46,468,535	35,211,401	36,423,963	36,658,217	36,965,093

The above Values are founded on the Declaration of the Shippers at the time of Shipping, but as disregard to correctness involves no serious responsibility or penalty, their accuracy is of course to a certain extent questionable. It will prove however on a thorough investigation of the subject, that the actual state of the Commercial relation of Great Britain, is, in reality worse, than in these Illustrations it is made to appear. The Declaration of Value, was first established at the commencement of the Year 1798, on the pretext of levying a duty to defray the expences of Convoy, consequently as the Valuation was subject to an *ad valorem* charge that was as long as the Convoy Duty was continued in itself, a sufficient check to an over valuation, from 1798 to 1816, therefore, when the Convoy Duty ceased, the REAL Money or Invoiced VALUE of the Products & Manufactures Exported in the Eighteen Years 1798—1815, somewhat exceeded the Declared Value as represented in the Custom House Returns to Parliament, from which these Illustrations have been compiled; whilst, the inherent disposition of all trading persons to make the utmost appearance in their trading transactions, will justify the inference, of the Declared Value somewhat exceeding the REAL or Invoiced VALUE, since 1816 when the Convoy duty ceased; consequently the DEPRECIATION in Money Value since 1816, may be considered greater than it is represented in the statement of Annual Depreciation of Value since 1798.

The Depreciation represented in the next following Statement, it is important to understand does not apply to the STANDARD of VALUE of the Ten Years 1798—1807, but to the Value of 1817 merely, the Year subsequent to the great revolution arising from the sudden transition of a state of peace to a state of War, unparalleled alike in energy and extent, and when upon every just principle of calculation, it was fair to infer after a depreciation of £25,775,562 & Annum, had resulted as a consequence of the system of petty expediency and speculation by which the War had been sustained, something like an equilibrium and reciprocity in the external commercial relations of the several Nations of the World would have been established.

STATEMENT of the Official Value (which implies Quantity, — Vide note to Statement of Imports) of MERCHANDIZE EXPORTED from the UNITED KINGDOM of GREAT BRITAIN & IRELAND, to all parts of the WORLD in each of the six Years 1817-1822, distinguishing the several Countries to which Exported, and the proportion to each respective Country, shewing also the Total Amount of Imports in each of the said six Years; the excess of Export to EUROPE and AMERICA, over and above the amount of IMPORTS from thence; and a hypothetical Illustration of the ways and means whereby the Commercial party obtain EQUIVALENTS for that Excess, at the Expence of the productive labour, and distress and privation of the Artizans and Labourers of GREAT BRITAIN.

COUNTRIES to which EXPORTED.	1817. £	1818. £	1819. £	1820. £	1821. £	1822. £
Bri. West Indies	7,015,591	5,989,707	4,692,414	4,555,775	5,311,772	4,370,100
East Do. & CHINA	2,779,626	3,186,982	2,373,913	3,273,817	4,313,047	3,886,950
Whale Fishery	2,888	3,020	2,945	5,006	4,549	2,953
Total W. & East Indies & Fishery.	9,798,105	9,179,708	7,069,272	7,834,598	9,629,368	8,260,003
IMPORT from Do.	16,346,739	16,391,000	16,124,508	16,468,863	15,138,490	13,488,628
U. S. of AMERICA	6,715,629	8,723,430	4,449,143	4,079,541	6,805,050	7,560,862
BRAZIL	2,284,569	3,191,621	1,896,316	2,279,231	2,137,221	1,974,560
For. West INDIES	1,823,287	1,509,752	1,145,322	1,257,313	1,584,930	1,332,568
South AMERICA	735,344	850,944	431,616	917,916	1,210,825	2,016,277
Bri. N. AMERICA	1,491,118	1,865,861	2,072,575	1,758,928	1,464,705	1,597,251
New HOLLAND	16,640	10,423	48,814	119,005	114,609	219,786
Cape of G. HOPE	253,161	206,238	179,508	256,878	300,956	245,155
Coast of AFRICA	242,584	273,649	243,507	309,568	383,301	436,893
Guern. Jer. Man	269,059	288,926	298,606	312,108	372,597	329,648
Total N. & South America Africa &c	13,881,393	16,920,144	10,765,407	11,290,507	14,374,193	15,733,009
Imports from Do.	6,221,664	7,243,979	6,131,934	7,465,677	7,735,293	7,643,779
Excess of Ex- port Equalized by Go. Bills	3,000,000	3,000,000	3,000,000	3,000,000	3,000,000	3,000,000
undue } Cot	1,000,000	2,000,000	1,000,000	824,783	2,500,000	3,500,000
adv in } Gra	2,000,000	2,500,000				
Depreciatio.	1,659,729	2,176,165	633,473	9,047	1,138,901	1,589,230
Balance £ To EUROPE	13,881,393	16,920,144	10,765,407	11,299,507	14,374,194	15,733,009
Germany	8,126,980	8,686,145	8,409,624	9,898,154	8,571,365	9,038,537
Italy	2,942,917	4,288,961	3,806,349	3,767,622	3,994,819	5,280,575
Russia	2,759,456	2,820,813	2,037,267	3,669,064	2,099,441	1,220,148
Holland	2,580,563	2,047,089	2,292,040	2,047,612	1,957,022	2,013,324
Portugal Az & Ma.	1,730,968	1,483,501	1,631,033	1,912,597	2,711,899	2,774,608
Gibraltar	1,322,726	911,915	1,124,618	1,781,074	1,885,711	2,869,425
Spain & Canaries	707,184	616,849	678,400	684,336	426,691	522,342
Flanders	1,844,182	1,922,099	1,771,520	1,542,331	1,925,940	1,844,821
Prussia	1,078,355	1,064,743	982,541	1,317,180	921,741	767,611
France	1,651,015	1,196,777	982,857	1,163,881	1,419,505	1,185,421
Turkey	599,228	1,061,811	767,467	961,746	583,017	972,447
Malta	772,959	674,878	565,941	528,433	355,724	479,733
Ionian Isles	2,135	13,220	6,207	14,041	7,478	13,235
Denmark	376,383	377,696	288,123	308,576	319,191	297,180
Sweden	151,509	137,501	161,328	126,660	184,532	131,544
Norway	78,155	142,700	99,367	99,704	94,858	79,679
Total EUROPE.	26,724,614	27,446,697	25,604,680	29,823,009	27,458,838	29,491,111
Imports from Do.	8,265,694	13,250,220	8,480,367	8,536,405	7,963,936	9,398,257
Excess of EXPORT Equalized as follows	18,458,920	14,196,477	17,124,313	21,286,604	19,494,902	20,092,854
viz. Govern. Bills	1,500,000	1,500,000	1,500,000	1,500,000	1,500,000	1,500,000
Absentee Do.	5,000,000	5,000,000	5,000,000	5,000,000	5,000,000	5,000,000
Foreign Stock D.	2,000,000			2,000,000	3,400,000	5,000,000
Undue advance in } Grain, Tallow, Flax }	5,000,000	5,000,000				
Depreciation in Va.			1,586,830	3,865,797	4,924,337	7,766,138
Defalcation	4,958,920	2,696,477	9,037,483	8,920,807	4,670,565	826,716
BALANCE						
National Loss	18,458,920	14,196,477	17,124,313	21,286,604	19,494,902	20,092,854

STATEMENT of the **TOTAL Official Value of MERCHANDIZE EXPORTED** from and **IMPORTED** into all the Ports of the **United Kingdom of GREAT BRITAIN & IRELAND**, during the **Six Years 1817 — 1822**, distinguishing the proportion of **Value** to and from the several Countries of the **WORLD**; shewing also the **Excess of Value EXPORTED over and above the Value IMPORTED**, from each respective **COUNTRY**

COUNTRIES	British Produce & Manufactures. £	Colonial & Foreign Produce. £	TOTAL Value EXPORTED. £	TOTAL Value IMPORTED. £	EXCESS of Value EXPORTED £
British West Indies	30,054,858	1,880,901	31,935,759	49,866,010	17,930,251
East Indies & CHINA	17,349,168	2,463,709	19,812,877	41,465,149	21,652,272
The Whale FISHERY	1,543	19,816	21,359	2,627,269	2,605,910
Total West, & East Indies, China, and Whale Fishery.	47,405,569	4,364,426	51,769,995	93,958,428	42,188,433
United States of America	37,546,621	787,033	38,333,654	21,672,530	16,661,124
Brazils	13,561,234	202,273	13,763,507	6,373,376	7,390,131
Foreign West Indies	8,374,370	318,802	8,693,172	4,703,790	3,989,382
South America	5,828,905	335,016	6,163,921	1,877,308	4,286,613
British North America	7,781,629	2,468,819	10,250,448	5,187,873	5,062,575
New Holland	431,294	97,182	528,476	56,324	472,152
Cape of Good Hope	1,216,105	235,791	1,451,896	657,343	794,553
Coast of Africa	988,351	900,567	1,888,918	1,002,433	886,485
Guernsey, Jersey & Man	1,389,533	481,412	1,870,945	909,964	960,981
Total North & South America For. W. Indies, Africa &c.	77,118,042	5,826,895	82,944,937	42,440,941	40,503,996
Germany	36,579,905	16,150,302	52,730,207	4,517,719	48,212,488
Italy	19,718,625	4,362,615	24,081,240	6,027,901	18,053,339
Russia	11,068,175	3,487,950	14,556,125	14,860,801	Contra
Holland	6,895,869	6,041,780	12,937,649	4,870,018	8,067,631
Portugal Azores & Ma	11,606,861	637,742	12,244,603	3,402,289	15,952,662
Gibraltar [deira	3,142,633	1,752,835	9,895,468	296,903	
Spain & the Canary Isles	2,606,816	1,028,982	3,635,798	6,124,015	9,447,970
Flanders	4,570,978	6,279,912	10,850,890	1,402,920	
Prussia	2,959,505	3,172,626	6,132,131	4,501,715	1,630,416
France	2,226,437	5,373,013	7,599,450	4,851,324	2,748,126
Turkey	4,227,646	717,872	4,945,518	2,034,945	2,910,573
Malta	2,861,288	516,334	3,377,622	221,777	2,747,200
Ionian Isles	49,287	7,028	56,315	464,960	
Denmark	1,158,453	809,194	1,967,647	932,872	1,034,775
Sweden	218,250	674,811	893,061	895,825	Contra
Norway	378,392	216,068	594,460	489,916	104,544
Total EUROPE	115,269,351	51,228,833	166,498,184	55,895,900	110,602,284
Total to all Foreign Parts which incur a National Loss	192,387,393	57,055,728	249,443,121	98,336,841	151,106,280

* In addition to the returns received from the Brazils &c. directly home, very considerable Shipments of produce to Europe are made on british account, which may make the transactions with that Division somewhat less unfavorable; but the aggregate result is made worse rather than better, in as much as it adds to the excess to EUROPE and thereby renders the LOSS more aggravating by its inequality.

HYPOTHETICAL ILLUSTRATION of the way in which the **EXCESS of EXPORT** represented in the preceding Statement is **EQUALIZED** to the Commercial party, whilst it resolves itself into **NATIONAL LOSS**, to the Amount in six Years of £ 151,106,280

BILLS drawn on Account of Government, on the Treasury, Paymaster of the Forces, Commissioners of the Navy, Army, Navy and Colonial Agents	18,000,000
from British North America, West Indies, New Holland, C. of G. Hope &c.	10,824,783
BULLION from South America, West Indies, and the United States of America	4,500,000
Undue advance in COTTON and COFFEE, in the Years 1817 — 1818	3,832,884
Do. Do. GRAIN and FLOUR, from the U. S. of America. in Do.	
DEPRECIATION in the Value of the Products of British Industry and LABOUR subsequent to 1818, from the Value in the Year 1817, which was at a Depreciation of £ 25,775,562 Compared with the average Value of the Ten Years 1798 — 1807.	3,346,329
BALANCE of American &c. Division	40,503,996
BILLS drawn on Account of Government, at Gibraltar, Malta, Ionian Isles &c.	9,000,000
Do. on Account of ABSENTEE and TRAVELLING EXPENDITURE.	30,000,000
Do. Do. FOREIGN LOANS !!!	12,400,000
Undue advance in GRAIN, TALLOW, FLAX, SILK, &c. in the Yrs. 1817 — 18	10,000,000
DEPRECIATION in the Value of Products exported to EUROPE since 1818, Vide — Depreciation above, and its progression in preceding and following Sta.	18,143,102
DEFALCATIONS, Bankruptcy, Insolvency, Compromise,	31,050,182
BALANCE European Division	£ 110,602,284,
TOTAL	£ 151,106,280

TABLE (O) showing the **QUANTITY of MERCHANDIZE EXPORTED** from and **IMPORTED** into **GREAT BRITAIN** in each year since 1783, distinguishing the **Proportions Exported to the East Indies and China and the West Indies**, from the **Proportion Exported to all other Parts of the World**; and showing also the **excess or waste of the Products of the British Artizan and Labourer in each Year**: **TABLE (S)** showing the **Quantity Imported in each Year from the East Indies and China and from the West Indies**.

	EXPORTS.				IMPORTS, As equivalents against the Amounts in col. No. 3, 5.	Excess or Exports, as per cols. Nos. 3 and 5.
	East Indies and China. 1.	British West Indies. 2.	All other Parts. 3.	Total. 4.		
	£	£	£	£	£	£
1784	..	1,370,066	..	15,101,491	8,871,105	4,200,000
1785	..	1,235,528	..	16,117,169	9,221,087	4,200,000
1786	..	1,536,063	..	16,305,866	9,185,993	4,400,000
1787	..	1,733,265	..	16,869,789	10,689,858	4,000,000
1788	..	1,766,454	..	17,472,238	10,484,860	5,000,000
1789	..	1,763,937	..	19,340,549	10,552,153	7,000,000
1790	..	1,986,201	..	20,120,121	12,090,089	6,500,000
1791	..	2,649,066	..	22,731,995	12,280,031	7,000,000
1792	703,168	2,922,119	20,841,913	24,467,200	12,774,735	8,067,178
1793	763,168	2,695,422	16,218,096	19,676,686	11,365,536	4,852,560
1794	987,754	3,632,762	20,490,930	25,111,446	13,047,803	7,343,127
1795	958,313	2,460,888	21,428,138	24,847,339	12,876,788	8,551,350
1796	1,093,697	3,220,668	23,702,703	28,026,068	15,874,286	7,828,417
1797	976,583	3,143,878	22,195,252	26,315,713	12,800,685	9,394,567
1798	898,048	5,197,913	24,194,068	30,290,029	14,818,998	9,575,060
1799	1,092,656	5,943,501	26,604,200	33,640,357	16,403,115	10,201,087
1800	1,261,824	4,082,100	32,776,196	38,120,120	18,275,820	14,500,376
1801	1,431,271	4,373,218	31,982,367	37,786,856	18,956,605	13,025,762
1802	1,584,463	3,878,594	35,948,909	41,411,966	17,143,764	18,804,133
1803	1,696,086	2,344,647	27,537,762	31,578,495	15,606,902	11,930,860
1804	1,499,855	4,229,025	28,722,487	34,451,367	16,397,631	12,324,856
1805	1,526,920	3,800,782	29,627,143	34,954,845	17,636,783	11,990,360
1806	1,605,078	4,705,200	30,216,906	36,527,184	16,355,004	13,861,902
1807	1,776,413	4,536,563	28,253,595	34,566,571	17,487,342	10,766,253
1808	1,833,657	5,850,773	26,869,836	34,554,267	15,067,608	11,802,228
1809	1,487,998	5,902,686	42,896,216	50,286,900	22,798,767	20,097,449
1810	1,555,296	4,579,289	39,735,274	45,869,859	28,256,096	11,479,178
1811	1,529,568	4,001,000	26,979,003	32,409,671	16,178,160	10,700,843
1812	..	4,740,216	..	43,243,172	15,804,907	22,000,000
1813	48,000,000	15,000,000	27,000,000
1814	1,696,404	6,284,353	44,477,641	52,358,398	13,620,000	30,857,641
1815	2,054,566	6,862,371	48,503,499	57,420,436	14,000,000	34,503,499
1816	2,185,641	4,559,665	41,470,879	48,216,185	10,000,000	31,470,879
1817	2,779,625	6,762,069	39,962,974	49,504,668	14,000,000	25,962,974
1818	3,185,750	5,784,554	43,828,013	52,798,327	20,124,862	24,121,711
1819	2,472,982	4,490,010	35,839,819	42,802,811	14,229,668	22,147,515
1820	3,229,811	4,347,043	40,766,208	48,343,062	15,943,908	25,329,300
1821	4,313,047	5,069,372	41,415,563	50,797,982	14,400,000	27,015,563
1822	3,886,950	4,145,463	44,738,005	52,770,418	16,000,000	28,738,005
1823						

The Amounts in Col. No. 3, of this Statement, have been deduced, by deducting the Amounts in Cols. 1 and 2 from the Totals in Col. No. 4, and Col. No. 3, of Table S, will show that the Amounts in Col. No. 5 of this Table exhibit all that has been received against the Amounts in Col. No. 3. There being no authentic return for the East Indies and China prior to 1792, occasions the Amounts in Col. No. 6, for the first eight years, to be assumed; but the general accuracy of the account is not affected thereby

TABLE (P) showing the INCREASED QUANTITY of BRITISH PRODUCE and MANUFACTURES EXPORTED in each year since 1797, and their Depreciation in Value since 1807, at the Expense of the Artizan and Labourer, in the Reduction of their Wages without any corresponding Equivalent; and the stationary Quantity of Imports as a consequence of the bulk of the People being precluded from consuming them.

British Produce and Manufactures Exported.		Value which the Quantities should have obtained.	Annual Depreciation in Value.	Excess of Quantity exported.	Rate of Wages for Weaving the sixty reed, 6-4 Cambric.	Quantity of Colonial and Foreign Productions imported and retained for Home Consumption, after deducting the Proportion re-exported.—7.
Quantity.	Real Value.					
1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1798 19,672,503	33,148,682	It deserves to be noticed, in reference to these ten years, that although the remuneration for labour was reduced one-half, there was no material alteration in the value of their products until 1808; the variation resolving itself into a transfer of the fair reward for labour to profits; the quantity exported annually averages £24,457,271. and the value £40,707,491. upon which data the calculations below are founded.			s. d.	
1799 24,084,213	38,942,498				15 0	17,240,420
1800 24,304,284	39,471,203				14 0	17,281,288
1801 25,719,980	41,770,354				14 0	16,754,768
1802 27,012,108	48,500,683				14 0	20,796,565
1803 24,252,102	40,100,870				16 0	16,971,996
1804 23,934,292	40,349,642				11 0	18,672,599
1805 25,003,308	41,068,942				11 0	18,692,208
1806 27,403,653	43,242,176				9 0	20,395,103
1807 25,190,762	40,479,865				8 0	19,715,381
1808 26,692,288	40,881,671	44,977,204	4,095,533	2,105,352	7 0	19,412,556
1809 35,107,439	50,242,761	59,156,950	8,914,683	4,920,773	6 6	21,769,958
1810 34,940,550	49,975,634	58,875,740	8,900,106	4,914,389	9 0	18,575,261
1811 24,109,931	34,917,281	40,625,864	5,708,583	3,131,062	10 0	30,185,245
1812 31,243,362	43,657,864	52,645,882	8,988,018	5,013,009	6 0	20,351,624
1813 32,000,000	43,000,000	54,000,000	11,000,000	6,164,900	3 0	16,598,984
1814 33,200,580	43,447,372	55,943,845	12,496,473	7,096,694	7 0	17,000,000
1815 41,712,002	49,653,245	70,285,814	20,632,569	11,879,527	13 0	13,462,952
1816 34,774,520	40,328,940	58,595,975	18,267,035	10,544,239	6 6	16,113,619
1817 39,235,397	40,337,118	66,112,670	25,775,562	14,995,397	4 0	12,933,255
1818 41,963,527	45,188,250	70,709,640	25,521,391	14,813,527	4 0	19,647,049
1819 32,923,575	34,248,495	55,477,084	21,228,600	12,346,524	5 6	24,983,998
1820 37,818,036	35,568,670	63,724,380	28,155,710	16,447,826	4 0	19,775,664
1821 40,194,893	35,826,082	67,729,446	31,903,364	18,669,993	4 6	20,992,765
1822 43,558,490	36,176,897	73,397,195	37,220,298	21,822,724	5 0	19,122,084
Aggregate depreciation in the 15 years, 1808-22, on comparison of average value of previous 10 years, 1798-1807			257,259,242	154,865,936	4 0	1823-4
Do. do compared with the years 1802-3			328,808,387	182,823,944	4 0	

* * It will be seen, on mature reflection, that this Statement does not apply to the general question of excess of export over and above the amount of import, but shows in itself an excess of quantity exported as a consequence of a depreciation in value effected at the expense of the operative artizan, by a reduction in the rate of his wages. It is true that, as value and price are mere relative terms, having no signification or definite meaning in themselves when applied to the affairs of nations, had the quantity of imports increased in a corresponding degree to the increased quantity of British produce and manufactures exported, the difference in value would then have been of no importance; but it will be seen, by col. No. 7, that if due allowance be made for the increased quantity of raw material of manufactures, which has been re-exported under the head of British produce and manufactures, instead of under the head of colonial and foreign produce, that the quantity of colonial and foreign productions imported and retained for home consumption, in the four last years 1819-22, has actually been less than it was in the four years 1798-1801, thereby demonstrating a sacrifice or waste of the productions of the British artizan and labourer (and at their exclusive expense,) of no less an amount of value in the fifteen years 1798-1822 than £257,259,242. in comparison with the average value of the produce of their labour during the ten years 1798-1807, and of £328,808,387. if compared with the value of the produce of their labour in the years 1802-3; and, was the comparison to be made against the value of the produce of their labour during the fourteen years 1784-97, the sacrifice or waste would prove to be not less than £440 to £460,000,000; but, as there was no authentic return of the real value of British produce and manufactures exported prior to 1798, when a duty was levied under the pretext of defraying the expenses of convoy, the case is submitted to rest on the results which the authenticity of the documents that have annually been laid before Parliament, since the period of 1798, alone exhibit.

STATEMENT shewing the ANNUAL VARIATION in the STATE and CONDITION of GREAT BRITAIN, as regards her COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, TAXATION, and PAROCHIAL ASSESSMENTS, on an Average of each five Years, since the general Peace in 1783.

YEARS.	COLONIAL & FOREIGN PRODUCE from and to all parts of the World except Ireland.		British Produce and Manufactures EXPORTED		TAXES.	Parochial Assessments.
	Imported.	Reexported.	At Official Value or Quantity	At Declared or Real Value.		
	£	£	£	£	£	£
1782	9,714,000	No Return	9,919,000	There was no authentic return of real Value prior to 1798.	17,000,000	2,000,000
1784 — 88	16,633,910	4,584,139	11,989,172		18,000,000	2,167,748
9 — 93	19,070,282	5,703,102	15,961,865		18,000,000	No authentic accounts for these periods
93 — 7	21,696,756	8,203,209	16,592,222		19,601,738	5,300,000
8 — 1803	29,578,490	11,631,550	23,840,865		33,670,195	6,500,000
1804 — 9	30,100,807	10,340,564	27,231,957	43,594,050	55,888,192	8,500,000
10 — 15	32,181,483	15,181,555	32,867,738	44,471,855	67,939,000	8,545,672
16 — 21	30,501,500	10,925,516	37,818,325	37,865,836	55,400,088	7,761,441
1822	29,401,807	9,211,928	43,558,490	36,176,897	54,974,243	6,898,153
1823	34,544,246	8,588,966	43,144,466	34,691,124	52,948,542	

•• The above Statement exhibits a considerable diminution in the Money Amount of both Taxes and Parochial Assessments, but, resolving itself, as all TAXATION does, into labour, and the products of labour the Taxation of 1823, both State and Parochial, will, on a fair investigation be seen to be greater than that of any Year during the WAR. ✎ The Accounts of Parochial Assessments are made up to Easter in each Year. In the above Statement the Accounts end at Easter in the Year affixed, but in the Statement below at Easter in the following Year.

COMPARATIVE VIEW of the INCREASE and EXTENT of PAUPERISM and CRIME in ENGLAND & WALES, at different Periods since 1748; and Statement shewing the Total Amount of Parish Assessments, and the Proportion thereof expended for the Relief of PAUPERS, and the EQUIVALENT of that Amount in Quarters of Wheat, according to the Average Price of Wheat in each Year; The No. of Committals for CRIME in England & Wales; The total Amount of TAXES in GREAT BRITAIN, and of BRITISH PRODUCE and MANUFACTURES Exported therefrom in each Year since 1811.

YEARS.	Total Amount of Parish Assessment	Expended for Relief of Paupers	Average Price of Wheat & Qu.	Equivalent of the Amount expended for Relief of Paupers in Qrs. of Wheat.	Committals for CRIME.	TAXES.	Quantity of British Produce & Manufactures EXPORTED.
	£	£		Qrs. —	No. —	£	
1749	730,135	689,971					
76	1,720,316	1,521,732				11,000,000	
84	2,167,748	1,912,241				18,000,000	
1803	5,348,204	4,077,891	s56/5d	1,443,101		38,511,812	22,252,102
12	8,640,842	6,656,105	125/5	1,061,438	6,576	64,752,025	31,243,362
13	8,388,974	6,294,584	108/9	1,197,625	7,164	68,302,859	32,000,000
14	7,457,676	5,418,845	73/3	1,484,615	6,390	70,240,312	53,299,589
15	6,937,425	5,724,506	64/4	1,779,639	7,818	71,203,141	41,712,002
16	8,128,418	6,918,217	75/10	1,824,584	9,091	62,426,506	34,774,520
17	9,320,440	7,890,148	94/9	1,665,467	13,932	52,135,739	39,235,397
18	8,932,185	7,531,650	84/1	1,791,472	13,567	53,937,318	41,963,527
19	8,719,655	7,329,594	73/0	2,008,408	14,254	53,238,914	32,923,575
1820	8,411,893	6,958,445	65/7	2,122,016	13,710	55,132,077	39,818,036
1	7,761,441	6,358,703	56/6	2,230,868	13,115	55,530,072	40,194,893
2	6,898,153	5,773,096	43/3	2,669,762		54,974,143	43,558,490
3						52,948,542	43,144,466

✎ In further illustration of the fact, of the burthen of TAXATION having increased, notwithstanding the diminution in the MONEY AMOUNT, and of all Taxation, however indirect and insidious its operation, and however remote its effect may be, ultimately resolving itself into LABOUR and the products of Labour, the DEPRECIATION in the Value of British Produce and Manufactures EXPORTED, will be seen to present itself in strong confirmation of the fact, it will be seen, that since 1803, whilst the QUANTITY annually Exported has nearly doubled, the Value is upwards of £ 4,000,000 $\frac{1}{2}$ Annum less, and the aggregate Depreciation in 1823, comparing the Value with the Average-Value of the six Years 1798 — 1803, upwards of £ 37,000,000. And in the Summary of a Report of a SELECT COMMITTEE of ARTIZANS, appointed in 1823 "to enquire into the causes which have led to the extensive depreciation or reduction in the remuneration for labour, and the CALAMITOUS DISTRESS consequent thereupon," it is shewn, that as TAXATION progressively increased, the remuneration for LABOUR as progressively decreased, and that the aggregate increase of Taxation, corresponds exactly with the aggregate decrease in the Remuneration for Labour, and proves to DEMONSTRATION, that not only direct Taxation, but that all subsistence, and all Income acquired by any other means than productive occupation, resolve themselves into an abstraction from the fair reward due to productive labour. Estimating therefore the pressure of Taxation either by its Amount in GOLD, which in 1819, after an interval of one and Twenty Years, without any Standard at all, was again made the Standard of Value for all commodity, or by Commodities themselves, the pressure of TAXATION in 1823 will prove greater than that of 1815, which was the maximum of Money Amount.

IMPORTATION & RE-EXPORTATION of SUGAR. 1807 - 1823.

STATEMENT of the Quantity of SUGAR, Imported into all the Ports of GREAT-BRITAIN from all parts of the World, in each of the Seventeen Years 1807-1823 distinguishing the proportion Imported from the British Colonies and Possessions in the West Indies & South America and the East Indies, from the proportion Imported from all other Parts. The Annual Average Price (exclusive of Duty) according to the Weekly Returns made to the London Gazette, The total Annual Value of the Quantity Imported from the British West Indies, according to the aforesaid Return of price: and the Rate of Duty $\frac{d}{cwt}$ in each Year.

Years.	IMPORTED from				ANNUAL		
	British West Indies. Cwts.	East Indies. Cwts.	All Other Parts. Cwts.	TOTAL. Cwts.	Average Price. $\frac{d}{cwt}$	Total Value. £	Rate of Duty $\frac{d}{cwt}$
1807	3,490,130	118,586	32,594	3,641,310	33/11 $\frac{1}{2}$	5,923,290	27/
8	3,455,832	72,587	225,066	3,753,485	38/6	6,642,477	
9	3,394,185	26,200	580,813	4,001,198	43/5 $\frac{1}{2}$	7,375,100	
1810	3,771,060	49,240	988,363	4,808,663	46/10	8,830,565	27/ 29/
11	3,647,142	20,322	250,079	3,917,543	36/5 $\frac{1}{2}$	6,646,636	
12	3,551,449	72,886	139,088	3,763,423	42/0 $\frac{1}{2}$	7,480,233	27/
13	3,500,000	50,000	450,000	4,000,000	58/1 $\frac{1}{2}$	9,900,000	
14	3,403,793	49,849	581,681	4,035,328	73/4 $\frac{1}{2}$	12,484,714	30/
15	3,493,116	125,629	366,027	3,987,782	61/10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10,803,184	
16	3,440,595	127,203	192,780	3,760,548	48/6 $\frac{1}{2}$	8,354,121	27/
17	3,563,741	125,894	105,916	3,795,530	49/8	8,849,956	
18	3,665,520	162,395	138,032	3,965,940	50/	9,163,800	30/
19	3,785,434	205,527	86,048	4,077,009	41/4	7,823,221	28/
1820	3,623,319	277,228	162,994	4,063,541	36/2 $\frac{1}{2}$	6,355,944	27/
1	3,734,292	269,162	197,402	4,200,856	33/2 $\frac{1}{2}$	6,200,480	
2	3,303,698	226,476	112,953	3,643,122	31/0 $\frac{1}{2}$	5,124,171	

STATEMENT of the Quantity of SUGAR Re-exported from GREAT BRITAIN to all parts of the World, in each of the above mention'd 17 Years 1807 - 1823. distinguishing the several proportions, of British West India, East India, Foreign, and Refined, the Refined in the Total being converted into Raw at the rate of 34 Cwt. of Raw for every 20 Cwt. of Refin'd. and shewing also the Quantity absorbed for Home Consumption, and the Amount of Customs Duty paid on the same in each Year

RE-EXPORTED.

Years.	British West Ind. Cwts.	East India. Cwts.	Foreign. Cwts.	Refined Cwts.	TOTAL. Cwts.	HOME Consumption. Cwts.	Amount of Customs Duty. £
1807	596,856	20,398	42,657	413,960	1,363,642		3,194,589
8	244,315	49,061	60,983	327,243	910,672		3,818,316
9	276,334	16,887	420,226	460,732	1,496,661		3,246,586
1810	90,480	7,095	519,320	413,208	1,319,349		3,014,074
11	275,991	4,032	239,153	100,946	690,869		2,868,232
12	310,803	6,964	356,546	284,617	1,158,192		3,580,224
13	430,500	10,000	410,000	450,000	1,615,500		
14	553,771	41,311	462,958	555,335	2,002,105	1,766,167	3,149,170
15	491,152	68,422	311,418	609,247	1,906,711	1,809,029	3,090,620
16	377,149	102,056	191,303	584,182	1,663,617	2,145,553	3,166,852
17	258,265	95,494	132,937	697,085	1,671,740	2,929,160	3,967,154
18	267,602	110,323	108,688	711,185	1,695,627	1,432,535	2,331,472
19	218,384	88,214	102,709	525,219	1,302,179	2,375,064	3,507,845
1820	179,402	186,603	138,297	679,561	1,659,556	2,497,744	3,477,771
1	149,203	147,283	186,325	645,357	1,579,919	2,558,665	3,660,567
2	170,983	102,467	137,707	374,784	1,048,297	2,484,407	3,579,412
3							4,022,782

* The following statement shews the principal Total From BRITISH PLANTATIONS, in the West Indies & South America. 3,303,698 Cwt.
Islands &c. in the West Indies from whence the Imports were derived in 1822. Viz. —
From JAMAICA. 1,113,718 Cwt.
From the EAST INDIES & CHINA 226,476
Do. HAVANNAH. 79,929
Do. BRAZILS. 33,021
DEMERARA. 530,948
St. VINCENTS. 261,160
GRENADA. 199,178
TRINIDAD. 178,491
BARBADOES. 156,682
All other British West Ind. Pla. 563,521
Total from all Parts in 1822, 3,643,127 Cwt.

STATEMENT shewing the ANNUAL VARIATION in the STATE and CONDITION of GREAT BRITAIN, as regards her COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, TAXATION, and PAROCHIAL ASSESSMENTS, on an Average of each five Years, since the general Peace in 1783.

YEARS.	COLONIAL & FOREIGN PRODUCE from and to all parts of the World exc pt Ireland.		British Produce and Manufactures EXPORTED		TAXES.	Parochial Assessments.
	Imported.	Reexported.	At Official Value or Quantity	At Declared or Real Value.		
	£	£	£	£	£	£
1782	9,714,000	No Return	9,919,000	There was no authentic return of real Value prior to 1798.	17,000,000	2,000,000
1784 — 88	16,633,910	4,584,139	11,989,172		18,000,000	2,167,748
9 — 93	19,070,282	5,703,102	15,961,865		18,000,000	No authentic accounts for these periods
93 — 7	21,696,756	8,203,209	16,592,222		19,601,738	
8 — 1803	29,578,490	11,631,550	23,840,865		33,670,195	5,300,000
1804 — 9	30,100,807	10,340,564	27,231,957	43,594,050	55,888,192	6,500,000
10 — 15	32,181,483	15,181,555	32,867,738	44,471,855	67,939,000	8,500,000
16 — 21	30,501,500	10,925,516	37,818,325	37,865,836	55,400,088	8,545,672
1822	29,401,807	9,211,928	43,558,490	36,176,897	54,974,243	7,761,441
1823	34,544,246	8,588,966	43,144,466	34,691,124	52,948,542	6,898,153

•• The above Statement exhibits a considerable diminution in the Money Amount of both Taxes and Parochial Assessments, but, resolving itself, as all TAXATION does, into labour, and the products of labour the Taxation of 1823, both State and Parochial, will, on a fair investigation be seen to be greater than that of any Year during the WAR. ✎ The Accounts of Parochial Assessments are made up to Easter in each Year. In the above Statement the Accounts end at Easter in the Year affixed, but in the Statement below at Easter in the following Year.

COMPARATIVE VIEW of the INCREASE and EXTENT of PAUPERISM and CRIME in ENGLAND & WALES, at different Periods since 1748; and Statement shewing the Total Amount of Parish Assessments, and the Proportion thereof expended for the Relief of PAUPERS, and the EQUIVALENT of that Amount in Quarters of Wheat, according to the Average Price of Wheat in each Year; The No. of Committals for CRIME in England & Wales; The total Amount of TAXES in GREAT BRITAIN, and of BRITISH PRODUCE and MANUFACTURES Exported therefrom in each Year since 1811.

YEARS.	Total Amount of Parish Assessment	Expended for Relief of Paupers	Average Price of Wheat & Qu.	Equivalent of the Amount expended for Relief of Paupers in Qrs. of Wheat.	Committals for CRIME.	TAXES.	Quantity of British Produce & Manufactures EXPORTED.
	£	£		Qrs. —	No. —	£	
1749	730,135	689,971				11,000,000	
76	1,720,316	1,521,732				18,000,000	
84	2,167,748	1,912,241				38,511,812	22,252,102
1803	5,348,204	4,077,891	s56/5d	1,443,101		64,752,025	31,243,362
12	8,640,842	6,656,105	125/5	1,061,438	6,576	68,302,859	32,000,000
13	8,388,974	6,294,584	108/9	1,197,625	7,164	70,240,312	33,299,589
14	7,457,676	5,418,845	73/3	1,484,615	6,390	71,203,141	41,712,002
15	6,937,425	5,724,506	64/4	1,779,639	7,818	62,426,506	34,774,520
16	8,128,418	6,918,217	75/10	1,824,584	9,091	52,135,739	39,235,397
17	9,320,440	7,890,148	94/9	1,665,467	13,932	53,937,318	41,963,527
18	8,932,185	7,531,650	84/1	1,791,472	13,567	53,238,914	32,923,575
19	8,719,655	7,329,594	73/0	2,008,408	14,254	55,132,077	39,818,036
1820	8,411,893	6,958,445	65/7	2,122,016	13,710	55,530,072	40,194,893
1	7,761,441	6,358,703	56/6	2,230,868	13,115	54,974,143	43,558,490
2	6,898,153	5,773,096	43/3	2,669,762		52,948,542	43,144,466
3							

✎ In further illustration of the fact, of the burthen of TAXATION having increased, notwithstanding the diminution in the MONEY AMOUNT, and of all Taxation, however indirect and insidious its operation, and however remote its effect may be, ultimately resolving itself into LABOUR and the products of Labour, the DEPRECIATION in the Value of British Produce and Manufactures EXPORTED, will be seen to present itself in strong confirmation of the fact, it will be seen, that since 1803, whilst the QUANTITY annually Exported has nearly doubled, the Value is upwards of £ 4,000,000 $\frac{1}{2}$ Annum less, and the aggregate Depreciation in 1823, comparing the Value with the Average-Value of the six Years 1798 — 1803, upwards of £ 37,000,000. And in the Summary of a Report of a SELECT COMMITTEE of ARTIZANS, appointed in 1823 "to enquire into the causes which have led to the extensive depreciation or reduction in the remuneration for labour, and the CALAMITOUS DISTRESS consequent thereupon," it is shewn, that as TAXATION progressively increased, the remuneration for LABOUR as progressively decreased, and that the aggregate increase of Taxation, corresponds exactly with the aggregate decrease in the Remuneration for Labour, and proves to DEMONSTRATION, that not only direct Taxation, but that all subsistence, and all Income acquired by any other means than productive occupation, resolve themselves into an abstraction from the fair reward due to productive labour. Estimating therefore the pressure of Taxation either by its Amount in GOLD, which in 1819, after an interval of one and Twenty Years, without any Standard at all, was again made the Standard of Value for all commodity, or by Commodities themselves, the pressure of TAXATION in 1823 will prove greater than that of 1815, which was the maximum of Money Amount.

IMPORTATION & RE-EXPORTATION of SUGAR. 1807 - 1823.

STATEMENT of the Quantity of SUGAR, Imported into all the Ports of GREAT-BRITAIN from all parts of the World, in each of the Seventeen Years 1807-1823 distinguishing the proportion Imported from the British Colonies and Possessions in the West Indies & South America and the East Indies, from the proportion Imported from all other Parts. The Annual Average Price (exclusive of Duty) according to the Weekly Returns made to the London Gazette, The total Annual Value of the Quantity Imported from the British West Indies, according to the aforesaid Return of price: and the Rate of Duty d Cwt. in each Year.

Years.	IMPORTED from				ANNUAL		
	British West Indies.	East Indies.	All Other Parts.	TOTAL.	Average Price.	Total Value.	Rate of Duty
	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	d Cwt.	£	d Cwt.
1807	3,490,130	118,586	32,594	3,641,310	33/11 $\frac{1}{2}$	5,923,290	27/
8	3,455,832	72,587	225,066	3,753,485	38/6	6,642,477	
9	3,394,185	26,200	580,813	4,001,198	43/5 $\frac{1}{2}$	7,375,100	
1810	3,771,060	49,240	988,363	4,808,663	46/10	8,830,565	27/ 29/
11	3,647,142	20,322	250,079	3,917,543	36/5 $\frac{1}{2}$	6,646,636	27/
12	3,551,449	72,886	139,088	3,763,423	42/0 $\frac{1}{2}$	7,480,233	
13	3,500,000	50,000	450,000	4,000,000	58/1 $\frac{1}{2}$	9,900,000	
14	3,403,793	49,849	581,681	4,035,328	73/4 $\frac{1}{2}$	12,484,714	30/
15	3,493,116	125,629	366,027	3,987,782	61/10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10,803,184	
16	3,440,595	127,203	192,780	3,760,548	48/6 $\frac{1}{2}$	8,354,121	
17	3,563,741	125,894	105,916	3,795,530	49/8	8,849,956	27/
18	3,665,520	162,395	138,032	3,965,940	50/	9,163,800	30/
19	3,785,434	205,527	86,048	4,077,009	41/4	7,823,221	28/
1820	3,623,319	277,228	162,994	4,063,541	36/2 $\frac{1}{2}$	6,355,944	27/
1	3,734,292	269,162	197,402	4,200,856	33/2 $\frac{1}{2}$	6,200,480	
2	3,303,698	226,476	112,953	3,643,122	31/0 $\frac{1}{2}$	5,124,171	

STATEMENT of the Quantity of SUGAR Re-exported from GREAT BRITAIN to all parts of the World, in each of the above mention'd 17 Years 1807 - 1823. distinguishing the several proportions, of British West India, East India, Foreign, and Refined, the Refined in the Total being converted into Raw at the rate of 34 Cwt. of Raw for every 20 Cwt. of Refin'd. and shewing also the Quantity absorbed for Home Consumption, and the Amount of Customs Duty paid on the same in each Year

RE-EXPORTED.

Years.	RE-EXPORTED.					HOME Consumption.	Amount of Customs Duty.
	British West Ind.	East India.	Foreign.	Refined	TOTAL.		
	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	£
1807	596,856	20,398	42,657	413,960	1,363,642		3,194,589
8	244,315	49,061	60,983	327,243	910,672		3,818,316
9	276,334	16,887	420,226	460,732	1,496,661		3,246,586
1810	90,480	7,095	519,320	413,208	1,319,349		3,014,074
11	275,991	4,032	239,153	100,946	690,869		2,868,232
12	310,803	6,964	356,546	284,617	1,158,192		3,580,224
13	430,500	10,000	410,000	450,000	1,615,500		
14	553,771	41,311	462,958	555,335	2,002,105	1,766,167	3,149,170
15	491,152	68,422	311,418	609,247	1,906,711	1,809,029	3,090,620
16	377,149	102,056	191,303	584,182	1,663,617	2,145,553	3,166,852
17	258,265	95,494	132,937	697,085	1,671,740	2,929,160	3,967,154
18	267,602	110,323	108,688	711,185	1,695,627	1,432,535	2,331,472
19	218,384	88,214	102,709	525,219	1,302,179	2,375,064	3,507,845
1820	179,402	186,603	138,297	679,561	1,659,556	2,497,744	3,477,771
1	149,203	147,283	186,325	645,357	1,579,919	2,558,665	3,660,567
2	170,983	102,467	137,707	374,784	1,048,297	2,484,407	3,579,412
3							4,022,782

The following statement shews the principal Islands &c. in the West Indies from whence the Imports were derived in 1822. Viz. —

From JAMAICA.	1,413,718 Cwt.
DEMERARA.	530,948
St. VINCENTS.	261,160
GRENADA.	199,178
TRINIDAD.	178,491
BARBADOES.	156,682
All other British West Ind. Pla.	563,521

Total From BRITISH PLANTATIONS, in the West Indies & South America. } 3,363,698 Cwt.

From the EAST INDIES & CHINA	226,476
Do. HAVANNAH.	79,929
Do. BRAZILS.	33,021

Total from all Parts in 1822, 3,643,127 Cwt.

STATEMENT of the Quantity, in lbs. weight of SHEEP & LAMB'S WOOL Imported into all the Ports of GREAT BRITAIN, from all parts of the WORLD, in each of the seven Years 1816—1822, distinguishing the several Countries from whence Imported, and the proportion from each respective Country, The Official, and the estimated Real Value thereof, and the Amount of Customs Duty paid thereon in each of the said 7 Years

COUNTRIES from whence IMPORTED.	1816. —lbs.—	1817. —lbs.—	1818. —lbs.—	1819. —lbs.—	1820. —lbs.—	1821. —lbs.—	1822. —lbs.—
Germany	2,816,655	4,816,567	8,432,237	4,489,479	5,113,442	8,615,529	11,125,114
Spain	2,958,097	6,282,073	8,760,627	5,528,951	2,536,229	6,968,927	5,994,298
France	221,595	770,344	2,129,677	998,644	230,919	231,567	675,148
Holland	221,015	911,352	1,094,441	136,589	186,051	310,587	618,607
New South Wales	13,511	none	86,525	74,284	99,415	175,433	138,498
Italy	108,234	19,128	56,082	158,352	2,915	16,985	23,917
Cape of Good Hope	9,623	12,083	14,481	20,655	13,869	12,153	46,581
North of Europe	359,422	232,070	1,409,085	971,981	196,242	98,297	271,056
Portugal	493,277	729,243	1,409,490	1,808,251	95,187	118,573	125,209
Turkey	26,821	66,692	556,979	348,002	189,584	29,376	853
Buenos Ayres	106,454	23,707	294,712	1,109,855	68,759	7,905	13
United Sta. of America	43,465	148,904	268,596	57,851	578	308	3,770
All other foreign parts	138,709	39,622	207,707	391,192	37,013	30,847	125,815
Ireland	598,807	654,421	1,653,737	89,370	254,628	45,276	260,260
Guernsey Jersey & Man	1,570	9,934	31,610	5,974	19,015	9,406	14,031
TOTAL	lbs. 8,117,869	14,715,843	26,405,486	16,190,343	10,043,746	16,680,043	19,323,170
Official Value	£ 316,130	617,216	1,017,006	692,346	375,497	671,754	694,725
Estimated Real Do.	£ 750,000	1,400,000	2,400,000	1,300,000	800,000	1,300,000	1,300,000
Customs Duty	£ 26,567	49,496	87,135	63,895	181,861	393,418	402,483

STATEMENT of the Quantity (in Number of Gallons) of WINE, Imported into all the Ports of GREAT BRITAIN, from all parts of the WORLD, in each of the four Years 1819—1822, Compared with the Quantity Imported in each of the three Years 1801—3 distinguishing the several Countries in which produced, and the proportion of each.

	1801.	1802.	1803.	1819.	1820.	1821.	1822.
Portugal	7,224,678	5,549,803	6,976,106	2,598,459	2,670,783	3,047,386	3,733,274
Spain	1,596,670	1,342,021	1,731,674	1,099,658	1,084,341	1,080,220	1,379,777
Madeira	296,658	377,471	394,129	736,372	659,608	607,742	515,714
The Canaries	9,427	34,374	28,726	397,710	269,971	225,015	204,123
France	631,737	311,596	364,149	388,938	274,899	266,433	300,654
The Rhine ..	26,694	28,858	14,658	30,363	32,881	27,828	29,200
C. G. Hope ..	11,523	4,027	3,370	415,505	485,160	532,615	565,491
Sicily	3,733	14,106	41,389	231,725	263,285	292,262	190,325
TOTAL							
Gallons.	9,801,120	7,662,617	9,554,201	5,898,732	5,740,930	6,079,502	6,918,559
Re-exported	1,012,874	668,084	639,554	968,467	1,165,516	1,310,300	1,039,916
Quantity Charged with duty							
Engl.	7,130,412	6,354,181	7,945,309	5,435,883	4,753,391	4,853,215	4,912,609
Scotd.	835,465	308,975	515,734	463,091	341,844	373,366	451,616
Ireln.	1,493,016	2,398,890	1,836,429	647,574	557,530	678,559	613,488
Am't. England	£ 828,759	612,358	917,211	1,011,054	875,504	857,250	889,670
Customs Duty	1,054,657	1,120,066	1,073,738	816,442	822,199	814,386	811,961
Do. Ireland	208,342	377,006	305,652	220,200	183,540	226,424	204,607
Bond	2,800,938	1,239,239	2,206,350	5,946,222	5,416,990	5,302,726	6,175,515
Stock } Dealers	4,520,117	5,168,525	6,001,026	4,865,479	5,075,018	4,786,237	5,090,541
Official Value				£ 575,622	558,056	594,493	673,960

* * By the above Statement it appears, that notwithstanding an increase in the Population of GREAT BRITAIN since 1801, of about 35 & Cent., the Importation of WINE has decreased one-third, and, if to the diminished Quantity Imported, the increased Quantity Re-exported be taken into account, the ratio of decrease of actual Consumption in Great Britain, will prove to exceed two-thirds; to this diminished Quantity also, inferior quality may be added, nearly a fifth of the quantity consumed at the present time being the produce of Sicily and the Cape of Good Hope, of qualities so inferior as hardly to deserve the name of Wine, nor would they have been admitted as such at the former period; the decrease of Consumption in Ireland, will be seen to be in a much greater ratio; To what cause is this vast diminution of consumption of Wine, a commodity so universally esteemed and so conducive to the enjoyment of Man, to be assigned? has any more congenial draught been introduced? Beer, Spirits, Tea, all have decreased in Consumption since 1801, with what then, have the British people regulated themselves under the operation of that increase of labour and exertion, which has led to the doubling of the exportation of the products of their labour? It seems to be a subject not unworthy a little sober consideration. The Official Value, will be seen to be very considerably below the Current Value of several Years past, Why? Is another question worth attention. The line Customs Duty above applies to Great Britain, but the excise to England only In Ireland Wine is charged with Customs Duty only.

STATEMENT of the Quantity of WOOD, — Timber, Deals, &c. Imported into all the Ports of GREAT BRITAIN, in the Year 1821, specifying the various kinds, the several Countries from whence Imported, and the proportion from each respective Country and also the amount of Customs Duty, paid on each description, in each of the Three Years 1821, 1822, 1823.

COUNTRIES	Norway	Sweden	Russia	Prussia	America	TOTAL	CUSTOMS DUTY.		
							1821	1822	1823
Descriptions							—£—	—£—	—£—
Deals	4,525	3,419	5,562	3,444	*7,994	*24,945	491,432	542,646	613,965
Do. ends	3,688	1,164	1,429	1,152		7,433			
Battens	1,956	427	1,038	84		4,203	47,796	72,857	104,760
Do. ends	1,034	188	109	7	696	1,338			
Handspikes	33	10	117	1	203	364	504	887	1,116
Oars	12	24	22	3	219	281	1,122	1,061	1,402
Spars	656	34	90	11	174	966	included with Masts yards &c		
Staves			1	10,137	41,169	51,307	42,423	49,813	44,326
Fath- } Firewood	414	75	106	6	762	1,364	with Barks, &c.		
oms of } Lathwood	46	35	920	2,147	6,048	9,196	20,693	26,114	29,163
Masts Yards & Bow									
spits und. 12 in. di.	2,298	1,386	1,880	304	4,240	10,108	19,051	20,057	20,934
Do. above 12 in.	10	8	1,178	288	5,474	6,959	328,139	452,818	577,691
Timber } Fir	15,432	5,367	5,867	65,475	271,016	362,158			
							33,840	12,210	15,024
							13,918	14,036	15,008
							24,477	15,027	22,625
Balks, Boards, Planks, &c. chiefly from Prussia.									

Total Amount of Customs DUTY. in 1818 £ 1,202,631 1,025,467 1,207,376 1,449,890
Total Official Values Do. 565,060 602,425 609,150 672,204

STATEMENT of the Quantity of FLAX Imported into all the Ports of GREAT BRITAIN, in each of the four Years 1818, 1819, 1820, and 1822, and also of the Quantity of HEMP, and TALLOW Imported in the latter Year, the Amount of Customs Duty paid, and the Official Value assigned to each article, according to the accounts annually presented to Parliament.

COUNTRIES from whence IMPORTED.	FLAX.			in the Year 1822.		
	1818. — Cwts. —	1819. — Cwts. —	1820. — Cwts. —	Flax — Cwts. —	Hemp — Cwts. —	Tallow — Cwts. —
Russia	285,275	330,093	313,823	416,941	583,760	788,038
Prussia	48,280	26,000	32,224	43,270	5,316	19
Holland	56,442	52,995	33,014	83,255	619	1,294
Flanders	24,966	4,577	1,544	51,384	15	814
France	9,976	467	33	1,870	2,868	2,361
Italy				104	18,794	289
All other parts	1,350	594	764	314	5,082	12,428
TOTAL	426,288	404,728	381,407	607,138	686,454	805,238
Proportion in 1822 into Ireland				4,314	17,826	26,900
Do. into GREAT BRITAIN				602,824	668,627	778,338
Amount of Customs Duty	8691	8,322	7,888	13,051	234,320	116,019
Official Value £	844,079	795,078	763,479	1,197,290	509,034	827,721
Rate of Duty @ Cwt.				5d.	9/2d.	3/2d.
Average Consuming Price		52 to 73/	48 to 52/	43 to 52/	37 to 52/	35 to 54/

* The Official Value assigned to the above articles, will be seen to be at the rate of about 38/ @ Cwt. for Flax, 18/ @ Cwt. for Hemp, and 21/ @ Cwt. for Tallow, which rate when compared with the consuming prices exhibited above, may seem considerably below the Real Import Value, and as such when viewed in conjunction with the undervaluation of Wool, Wine, &c. exhibited in preceding Statements, they may seem in some measure to subvert the conclusion drawn in the Statement Hypothetically Equalizing the excess of Value Exported, but, as previously expressed, it will be seen by the sequel of these Illustrations, that although some articles will prove to be considerably undervalued, the aggregate Real Value of the Imports, in so far as they constitute fair and legitimate Equivalents in Exchange for Commodities Exported will prove not materially if at all to exceed the aggregate Official Value assigned to them. For instance as regards Equivalent. — The Consuming value of the Timber, Deals, &c. Imported will prove to exceed £ 4,000,000 @ Annum but the value is mainly composed of Duty, Charges, & Freight, none of which except the Freight of Foreign Ships constitute any Equivalent against the value EXPORTED.

STATEMENT of the EXCISE REVENUE of GREAT BRITAIN
in each of the seven Years 1817 — 1823.

	1817.	1818.	1819.	1820.	1821.	1822.	1823.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Auctions —————	251,452	275,966	277,202	245,407	221,079	223,871	236,650
Drink. { Beer —————	2,669,163	3,038,779	3,006,732	2,907,076	3,012,344	3,200,705	3,333,333
{ Malt* —————	2,093,077	3,196,241	2,799,113	4,937,660	5,177,977	4,251,029	3,508,734
{ Hops —————	80,756	115,164	349,020	419,130	241,303	263,093	35,835
{ Spirits } British.	2,762,834	3,312,258	2,867,288	3,110,715	3,180,416	3,478,542	2,833,038
Foreign.	2,277,090	2,266,843	2,485,202	2,529,587	2,485,755	2,533,742	2,000,127
Bricks & Tiles —————	250,180	320,350	374,377	330,258	313,760	342,290	407,239
Candles —————	353,822	366,729	370,295	375,748	400,930	415,494	443,052
Cocoa & Coffee —————	135,040	122,826	219,737	404,557	352,122	387,285	426,437
Cyder & Perry —————	22,915	12,120	62,968	65,100	38,723	27,954	48,718
Glass —————	746,663	927,282	958,466	801,483	816,714	858,486	962,710
Hides & Skins* (Leather) —————	647,135	689,243	696,517	661,800	656,870	553,503	376,435
Licences —————	648,303	702,980	680,474	720,474	699,286	711,778	715,209
Paper —————	469,926	543,162	516,157	524,189	558,323	599,080	616,391
Pepper* —————			26,342	142,098	144,967	160,037	153,389
Printed Calicoes & Paper —————	1,164,838	1,567,453	1,523,017	1,601,040	1,748,506	1,674,139	1,811,919
Salt* —————	1,523,190	1,568,492	1,549,352	1,603,467	1,625,877	1,493,123	389,120
Soap —————	1,005,724	1,042,630	1,003,095	1,074,415	1,173,464	1,216,380	1,282,234
Starch —————	34,736	60,554	60,555	65,798	67,139	82,458	78,090
Stone Bottles —————	827	2,692	2,978	2,727	3,226	3,105	3,298
Sweets —————	9,750	15,378	13,100	4,550	4,672	5,239	12,104
Tea —————	2,830,203	3,173,879	3,118,788	3,133,396	3,281,880	3,430,188	3,410,408
Tobacco* —————	1,483,942	1,486,522	2,872,107	2,559,629	2,466,035	2,617,460	2,586,499
Vinegar —————	37,937	40,658	47,544	42,254	44,212	45,813	48,242
Wine (vide Customs) —————	1,153,332	1,288,840	1,043,509	1,039,248	1,028,792	1,007,088	1,121,950
Wire —————	8,963	9,633	8,577	11,568	11,722	9,362	9,134
Fines & Forfeitures —————	18,000	16,600	17,910	19,162	22,583	21,075	19,028
Total Gross Receipt. of Collectors	22,680,799	26,163,268	25,960,422	29,332,640	29,808,791	29,312,391	27,568,026
Receiv. General						2,481	5,079
Clerk of Petty Incid.	230,317	124,000	159,564	160,390	122,464	121,934	118,360
Bills not due						28,676	29,441
						1,541,859	1,455,593
Total Sum to be accounted for Discharged as follows viz.	22,911,118	26,287,198	26,119,987	29,492,030	29,931,215	31,006,740	29,176,501
DRAWBACKS on Goods EXPORTED { Beer	57,340	58,389	38,605	44,769	55,866	56,594	52,993
Glass	373,389	410,130	333,446	306,986	307,283	355,712	415,097
Leather	47,354	45,971	49,439	39,819	48,275	35,744	16,023
Paper	22,172	24,320	22,493	19,293	22,149	24,095	25,792
Printed Calicoes	824,668	1,079,603	877,832	935,661	1,077,421	1,186,875	1,146,251
Soap	32,320	32,491	40,852	47,264	50,765	39,308	62,680
Wines	48,781	48,744	43,034	43,230	45,957	50,063	48,773
All other articles	73,562	62,333	69,174	67,219	57,400	57,239	47,210
Allowances —————	153,427	82,365	88,544	87,247	77,671	347,113	503,453
Repayments for Over-Entries	12,807	10,703	12,921	29,186	90,864	18,991	6,213
Salaries & Allowances — Day Pay to Weighers, &c.	1,004,138	1,027,863	1,030,197	1,053,925	1,059,302	768,669	763,551
Special Services						18,306	10,541
Ex. of Country Sittings						7,904	10,217
Tradesmen's Bills						21,635	21,273
Rent & Rates of Offices						22,644	22,012
Law Charges						10,851	12,443
Stationery & Postage						39,411	31,169
Superannuations	49,636	55,278	58,934	61,913	61,827	60,453	40,688
Rewards to Offic. for Seiz.	112,608	46,224	39,315	34,492	35,938	74,715	72,281
Do. & Ex. of Public Sales						41,401	19,932
Miscellaneous Payments						16,065	45,297
CRUISING Department.						22,523	20,847
Warehousing Do.						15,517	24,351
Treasurers of Co. for Corn Retn.						103,325	189,295
*Incidental Payments						3,098	2,846
PENSIONS						17,480	14,000
Bounties for pro. Fisher.						14,000	80,739
Salaries attending do.						60,000	12,000
Courts of Session, &c.						11,500	98,094
Kings Hereditary Reve.						107,761	39,902
Payments into } ENGLAND	18,396,401	21,330,746	21,492,840	24,742,242	24,781,957	24,622,441	23,066,467
Exchequer. } SCOTLAND	1,391,500	1,611,500	1,551,000	1,628,961	1,800,458	1,725,000	
BALANCES	124,030	159,564	160,390	122,464	1,694,350	1,608,475	1,355,069
Total Discharge of INCOME.	22,911,116	26,287,198	26,119,987	29,492,030	29,931,215	31,006,740	29,176,501
Proportion SCOTLAND	1,970,901	2,200,000	2,138,580	2,225,726	2,408,972	2,380,160	2,262,008

Of the £14,000 $\frac{1}{2}$ Annum PENSIONS, £9,000 are paid to the Duke of GRAFTON, who receives also £4,700 $\frac{1}{2}$ Annum out of the Revenue of the POST OFFICE, of the remainder of the £14,000, £3,000 was granted to an Earl of BATH, as far back as 1694, now received by Lord Melbourne, and Charles Toone, Esq. by virtue of purchase, the remaining £2,000 was granted to Henry Nassau Seigneur D'auverquerque in 1796, now received by Earl Cowper, by virtue of purchase.

STATEMENT of the Gross Receipt of the STAMP DUTIES, of GREAT BRITAIN
in each of the seven Years 1817 — 1823, shewing the proportion of Gross Receipt
in SCOTLAND in 1823, and the proportion of Nett Proceeds in each Year,
and a detailed Statement of the expence attending the Collection of the same.

	1817.	1818.	1819.	1820.	1821.	1822.	1823.	Scotland
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Deeds Law Proceedings &c	2,222,415	2,311,076	2,203,837	2,112,776	2,095,393	2,062,262	2,059,350	177,906
Legacies	980,920	893,713	875,037	889,887	960,616	1,053,958	981,242	50,359
Probates	695,340	711,580	720,365	763,562	796,637	739,583	820,599	38,556
Bills of Exchange & Prom- Receipts [issory Notes	795,940	845,750	738,975	697,506	691,335	668,067	681,881	99,282
Newspapers	207,530	208,362	205,254	204,887	199,225	194,534	196,044	16,356
Advertisements	363,284	367,740	384,141	440,228	414,370	398,873	411,171	20,794
Fire Insurances	133,018	137,020	139,139	140,190	142,061	148,319	141,496	16,020
Stage Coaches	597,592	604,442	617,128	609,143	621,362	631,207	637,349	24,846
Post Horses	264,666	256,104	260,543	273,447	279,602	311,284	345,823	19,825
Race Do.	243,853	224,828	239,840	245,954	242,703	242,334	261,873	none
Gold & Silver Plate	1,020	1,073	903	1,035	1,004	1,046	1,507	140
Medicine & Medicine Li- Almanacks [cences	86,006	102,020	97,390	86,750	81,329	83,700	86,215	4,736
Pamphlets	41,195	44,325	37,942	39,227	40,109	39,026	38,518	208
Cards	32,752	33,320	33,434	32,789	33,016	32,453	30,550	55
Dice	843	1,059	844	826	1,026	751	796	38
Lottery Stamps	21,201	22,641	22,445	21,369	21,347	21,180	22,007	
	771	612	714	664	830	1,663	1,309	
	4,475	4,965	4,435	4,193	4,825	3,591	2,962	
Total Gross Receipt	6,692,821	6,760,639	6,582,353	6,564,461	6,626,811	6,634,722	6,720,932	469,134
of Country Distri- bution Do. since 1800	157,486	149,376	133,487	130,136	136,635	100,962	95,545	
Imprest	22,515	20,422	16,582	19,450	22,100	24,637	24,019	
Bills not due	50	100	1,110	2,896	3,714	7,646		
	34,513	39,057	52,788	46,754	48,166	189,525	232,560	
Total Sum to be accounted	6,907,385	6,969,494	6,785,210	6,761,912	6,836,598	6,953,561	7,080,703	
on Deeds, &c. [for	14,039	14,326	13,284	12,648	12,550	12,692	12,929	50
Probates	7,777	7,734	7,905	8,234	8,601	8,008	9,027	
Bills of Excha &c.	5,607	6,154	4,552	4,217	4,259	4,268	4,416	
Receipts	9,633	9,743	9,530	9,230	8,893	8,791	8,279	
Newspapers	68,439	69,411	72,462	83,534	78,616	76,281	78,943	4,060
Fire Insurances	27,409	27,747	28,281	27,876	28,516	29,011	29,301	1,242
Medicines	4,323	4,864	4,003	4,063	4,319	4,265	4,174	
Almanacks	1,258	1,532	1,781	1,783	1,289	1,535	1,489	
Gold & Silver Plate	2,135	2,542	2,416	2,156	2,023	2,057	2,137	117
Cards	312	336	332	313	312	310	323	
Race Horses	50	53	52	50	49	51	70	4
Drawback on Plate Export.	9,555	9,547	10,104	11,742	10,266	6,023	7,244	80
Parchment Paper & Blanks	26,402	29,457	28,288	28,592	26,605	26,293	28,315	
Returns on Legacies	1,090	2,538	2,410	7,807	1,445	4,830	1,879	
Probates	8,018	7,473	17,858	19,577	31,418	32,432	34,759	
Incidents	240	50		81				
Salaries [Distributors					48,686	48,671	4,065	
& Centage to Country					70,279	63,917	11,714	
Special Services					2,235	4,133	91	
Tradesmen's Bills					13,385	4,187	391	
Rents & Rates of Off.					570	657	125	
Law Charges					4,562	4,334	4,408	
Stationary & Postages					12,225	12,899	937	
Superannuations					5,002	5,039		
Incidents	170,938	177,507	201,272	176,034	183,768	11,435	15,682	1,572
Payments into } England	5,924,624	5,955,772	5,713,679	5,706,599	5,670,391	5,770,302	6,362,620	
EXCHEQUER } Scotland	412,800	435,500	466,850	444,750	438,250	438,250		
BALANCES	208,905	202,927	186,340	208,011	318,010	359,770	333,868	
Total Disposal of Income	£ 6,907,385	6,969,494	6,785,210	6,760,802	6,833,712	6,953,561	7,080,703	
Gross Produce of Ireland	563,916	556,067	514,526	448,089	438,145	458,176	481,592	
Nett. Do. Do.	506,391	495,182	468,581	398,557	386,081	410,143	425,484	

There are 68 Country Distributors of STAMPS in England & Wales, and 26 in Scotland, who receive collectively, as is shewn above, about £ 65,000 \textsterling Annum. The Rate at which the exaction was made, prior to the 5th. of April 1822 was 4 \textsterling Cent. since that date the rate in England & Wales has been 4 \textsterling Cent. where the Distribution has not exceeded £ 10,000 \textsterling Annum. and for every Sum after the first £ 10,000 and under £ 20,000 3 \textsterling Cent. and for every Sum above £ 20,000 and under £ 30,000, 2 \textsterling $\frac{1}{2}$ Cent. and for every Sum above £ 30,000 2 \textsterling Cent. In Scotland with the exception of Edinburgh & Glasgow which are on the same terms as in England & Wales, the Rate is 6 \textsterling Cent. In addition to this emolument the Distributors derive a further benefit by trading with the Money, a measure prejudicial in various ways to the public weal! and as, since the facility of intercourse of all parts of the Country with the METROPOLIS, the medium of the 96 Distributors tends rather to retard than promote the convenience of the public, it ought to be instantly and unconditionally dispensed with.

**STATEMENT of the REVENUE of the POST OFFICE of the UNITED KINGDOM
of GREAT BRITAIN and IRELAND, in each of the Seven Years 1817 — 1823.**

	1817.	1818.	1819.	1820.	1821.	1822.	1823.
						£	£
Unpaid Letters outwards, Paid Letters inwards, Ship Letters, &c. Charged to the Country Postmasters by the General Office in London						440,738	417,370
Unpaid Letters inwards, and Paid Letters outwards at Do.						380,213	410,640
Bye, and Cross Road Letters						513,338	520,196
Letters charged to the Postmasters in the <i>West Indies and British North America</i> ..						37,342	45,109
Passage Money and Freight of Specie by the Packets						18,900	46,624
Miscellaneous Receipts (£43,600 City Bonds sold in 1822)						50,451	4,598
TOTAL RECEIPT	£	£	£	£	£		
<i>within each Year</i> { GENERAL	1,462,164	1,494,343	1,495,174	1,450,138	1,431,419	1,441,002	1,443,745
ENGLAND { TWOPENNY	93,215	96,407	99,043	100,255	99,825	100,739	105,138
& WALES. { FIGNOER	190,169	196,517	179,774	168,666	159,170	164,226	178,212
Letters from <i>England to Ireland</i>	51,674	54,422	54,811	55,215	55,208	52,792	53,771
Total Gross { SCOTLAND	185,419	186,690	199,236	184,533	179,397	184,143	184,601
Receipt in { IRELAND	192,065	190,769	188,986	185,872	187,120	186,204	188,826
TOTAL UNITED KINGDOM	£ 2,154,595	2,222,148	2,295,960	2,144,679	2,122,139	2,128,926	2,154,293
<i>Balances in hands of</i> { Country Post Masters						119,007	96,711
{ Receiver General	156,079	148,684	156,630	159,750	135,134	2,978	4,316
{ Bills not due						76,674	72,847
Receiver General & Dep. in Ireland	29,351	30,075	35,204	36,798	39,318	41,865	45,982
Total Sum to be accounted for	£ 2,340,026	2,401,807	2,397,794	2,341,227	2,296,581	2,369,558	2,375,149

Discharged as stated below

* On a fair examination of the above Statement, it will be seen, that notwithstanding the reiterated assertions during the two last Years, of the Country being in a career of unexampled Prosperity, the Revenue of the Post Office, affords no evidence of any such Prosperity, on the contrary, if the increased rate of Postage since 1805 be taken into account, the number of Letters passing through the Post Office hath not increased since that time, a period of Twenty Years. — Vide Statement of the Income and Expenditure of the Government in each Year since 1792, — prefixed. Of The £13,700 PENSIONS charged below £5,000 are paid to the Duke of Marlborough, £4,700 to the Duke of Grafton, (Vide Excise) and the remaining £4,000 to the Heirs of the Duke of Schomberg.

Returns for Overcharges &c.	ENGLAND	56,794	58,800	53,355	52,455	54,688	50,665	54,569
	SCOTLAND	11,270	11,149	10,937	11,718	11,146	10,693	10,145
	IRELAND	13,504	12,936	11,846	12,442	11,592	12,237	11,598
Salaries	to Officers, Clerks, Sorters, Carriers, &c. <i>London and Edinburgh</i>							
Wages & Allowances	Country Post Masters, and Agents Great Britain and Colonies							
	Officers, Clerks, Sorters, and Carriers of the Two-penny Department							
Charges of Conveyance	Mileage to Mail Coaches, and Wages to Guards Riding and other Charges of the Country Postmasters in Great Britain Do. Do. of the Two-penny Department Do. Do. of the Postmasters in <i>Canada, Nova Scotia, and Jamaica</i> Amount paid for Tolls of Mail Coaches Transit Postage through Foreign Countries Paid to Masters of Ships for Ship Letters							
	Special Services & Travelling Expences Tradesmen's Bills, Coals, Candles, &c. Rent, Taxes, and Tithes of Offices Amount paid for Law Charges Stationery, Printing, and Postage Superannuation Allowances Allowances for Offices, & Fees abolished Commissioners of the Holyhead Road							
MISCELLANEOUS CHARGES								
Payments on account of New Post Office INCIDENTS. Vide note above £453,822		90,000	2 000	9,000	14,000	22,700		
Charges of Managemt. Ireland		375,727	376,149	388,258	383,849	2,707		3,051
PENSIONS		127,451	122,006	111,833	107,430	100,542		102,141
		13,700	13,700	13,700	13,700	13,700		13,700
PACKETS								
	British	69,061	81,570	80,272	78,424	118,135	107,730	94,654
	Irish	14,454	14,382	14,731	14,059	12,600		27,218
		14,764	16,792	17,338	15,389	15,558	26,895	
Payments into EXCHEQUER	G. Britain	1,334,000	1,334,000	1,473,000	1,396,000	1,318,000	1,359,000	1,387,000
	Ireland	57,231	46,154	53,538	59,077	65,539	69,231	75,692
BALANCES	Great Britain	154,654	157,117	165,941	136,636	139,576	174,874	168,589
	IRELAND	30,975	36,204	36,798	39,318	41,908	45,982	45,377
Total Discharge of INCOME		2,340,026	2,401,807	2,397,794	2,341,227	2,296,581	2,369,253	2,375,140

* The General Department of the POST OFFICE in LONDON employs about 200 Superintendants, Clerks, and Sorters, 220 in Delivering. The Twopenny Department, about 50 Clerks and Sorters, and a great Number in Delivering. The Foreign Department, about 20 Clerks and Sorters and 34 in delivering. The General Offices in EDINBURGH and DUBLIN employ a proportionate number of persons. There are 514 Deputy Postmasters in England & Wales, 278 in Scotland, and 415 in Ireland most of whom have their Sub-agents for collateral distribution. Twenty-one Coaches and four, leave London every evening (except Sundays) with about 40,000 Letters and 20,000 Newspapers, while a corresponding Number of Coaches arrive with nearly the same number of Letters for Distribution every morning in London, to maintain this order of distribution and interchange of correspondence between London and all parts of the Country, requires about 85 Coaches and 2,000 Horses, and the Cross distribution about the same number, to which 500 additional Horses may be added, employed by Bye Posts, forming a Total of about 170 Coaches, 4,500 Horses, and 3,000 persons constantly engaged in the Distribution of Letters in GREAT BRITAIN.

STATEMENT shewing the Number of each Item of Assesment, under the Assesed Taxes in the Year ending April the 5th. 1822, according to a return made to Parliament in the Session of that Year, and also the Amount of the Assesment under each respective head, in each of the Two Years 1822 and 1823. according to the accounts annually presented to Parliament.

By the Act of 38 Geo. 3. c. 60. the Land Tax of GREAT BRITAIN which was previously Annual, was made perpetual at £ 2,037,627 $\frac{1}{2}$ Annum, since which period up to the 5th. of Jan. 1822 £ 714,362 $\frac{1}{2}$ Annum of Land Tax has been redeemed, by cancelling £ 25,819,089 of 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ Cent Stock, the annual Dividend of which was .. £ 774,573 According to the returns made to Parliament in 1821 the Total No. of HOUSES Inhabited in GREAT BRITAIN in that Year was 2,429,630 out of which 492,182 were charged with Duty under the Assesed Taxes, and 214,239 Farm Houses exempt by Statute, the amount of the Assesment in 1821 £ 1,264,754

The No. of Houses subject to Window Duty in 1821 was 968,008 and the Assesment £ 2,578,580 and 681,496 Cottages — Exempt. } 2,490,906 2,068,046

* According to a return made to Parliament in 1824, 437,626 out of the 492,182 Houses charged with Duty were in England & Wales, and out of that Number there were 35,708 rated at £ 50 to £ 110 $\frac{1}{2}$ Annum, 4,910 at £ 110 to £ 160 $\frac{1}{2}$ Annum, and 3,527 only at £ 160 $\frac{1}{2}$ Annum and upwards. — *Vide Monthly Magazine* p. 299, Vol. LVIII.

The following is a Statement of all the other Items of Assesment under the Assesed Taxes in 1821	Number Assesed	Amt. of Assesment —£—	Duty Paid —£—		
Servants (Schedule No. 1)	85,344	319,087	292,170	}	565,140 454 683
Do. Do. 2. 3. 4.	201,737	253,626	232,468		
Four Wheeled Carriages	17,406	213,298	195,505		
Do. Do. Modified	142	493	450	}	529,896 446,728
Two Wheeled Carriages	25,921	196,236	179,866		
Stage Coaches— <i>Vide also Stamps</i>	7,062	74,667	68,438		
Taxed Carts	19,319	44,726	40,995	}	660,778 527,227
Carriage Makers	603	274	254		
Do. Sellers	4,234	3,398	3,114		
Riding or Pleasure Horses ..	178,337	648,226	594,852	}	161,071 106,493
Do. Do. Modified	13,080	29,280	26,807		
Do. to Hire	1,500	4,312	3,952		
Race Horses	674	1,928	1,775	}	Repealed
Horses & Mules	168,052	147,518	139,045		
Do. used in Husbandry	479,399	387,573	355,242		
Do. Do. Modified	336,260	61,783	84,127	}	13,793 12,67
Horse Dealers	1,001	13,900	12,740		
Dogs	212,311	169,247	155,359		
Packs of Hounds	72	2,592	2,376	}	172,148 171,63
Hair Powder	29,199	34,308	31,446		
Armorial Bearings	22,627	44,843	41,102		
Game Certificates	41,427	143,927	131,821	}	31,108 27,48
Composition Duty					
Arrears, Income Duty, Property Duty, &c.					
					43,111 44,020
					137,175 139,674
					34,165 39,670
					12,162 28,995
Total Gross Receipts within each Year.....		£ 7,961,498	7,260,999		6,541,296

Charges of Collection of LAND & ASSESSED TAXES

Salaries & Allowances to Officers & Clerks of Office in London	70,011	90,017
$\frac{1}{2}$ Centage to Receivers General, Collectors, & Clerks to Comm	172,002	135,564
Do. to Surveyors for Increases made by them, &c.	26,046	34,799
Day Pay & Wages to Extra Clerks, Porters &c.	6,114	5,922
Allowances for Travelling Charges.....	6,548	11,691
Tradesmen's Bills, Coals, Candles, &c.	921	797
Rates, Taxes, and Tithes	112	107
Law Charges, England £ 9,644. Scotland £ 11,527. Total 21,171	8,477	8,768
Deduct Costs received of the prosecuted in England £ 3,925	22,186	19,289
Stationery, Postage, Carriage, &c.	15,113	12,014
Superannuations, and Allowances for Offices and Fees abolish'd	4,573	4,308
Charges attendant on passing the Accounts of the Receivers Ge.	890	941
Allowances under Land Tax Redemption Acts and other Incid.	30,622	22,228
Payments out of the Gross Receipt not constituting Chas. of Collection		
Militia and Deserters Warrants, Volunteers	10,102	9,639
Augmentation of Stipends to Scotch Clergy	12,661	5,948
Roads and Bridges in Scotland	6,056	6,004
Repayments of Land Tax Redeemed	2,860	505
Do. of Taxes erroneously Charged	6,994,008	6,188,871
Payments in each Year into the EXCHEQUER. £ 7,556,892	463,014	424,091
Proportion of Gross Receipt in each Year in Scotland		

STATEMENT showing the **GROSS ANNUAL INCOMES** of the **2,941,383 FAMILIES** composing the **POPULATION of GREAT BRITAIN**, according to the **RETURN** made to **PARLIAMENT** in 1821; the Families divided into 28 Classes, showing the Annual Income of each Class, and its Order of Application, under the Four several Heads of *Expenditure in Agriculture or Natural Production; Artificial or Manufactured Production; Taxes, Rates, &c.; and Surplus.*

No.	Families. 1.	Rate of Income per Ann. 2.	Application of Income for				Total. 7
			Agriculture, or Natural Production. 3.	Artificial, or Manufactured Production. 4.	Taxes, Paupers' Rates, and Tithes. 5.	Surplus. 6.	
		£	£	£	£		£
1	1,000,000	Distress & privation. 25	21,000,000	3,500,000	500,000	Below subsistence, consequently no surplus.	25,000,000
2	600,000	33	17,500,000	2,000,000	500,000		20,000,000
3	400,000	50	16,500,000	3,000,000	500,000		20,000,000
4	300,000	66	16,500,000	3,000,000	500,000		20,000,000
5	200,000	100	16,500,000	3,000,000	500,000		20,000,000
Line of demarcation between distress and privation, and subsisting comfort.							
6	100,000	200	12,500,000	5,000,000	1,500,000	1,000,000	20,000,000
7	66,666	300	10,000,000	7,000,000	2,000,000	1,000,000	20,000,000
8	50,000	400	9,000,000	7,000,000	3,000,000	1,000,000	20,000,000
9	40,000	500	7,000,000	8,000,000	4,000,000	1,000,000	20,000,000
10	33,333	600	6,500,000	8,500,000	4,000,000	1,000,000	20,000,000
11	28,570	700	6,000,000	8,000,000	5,000,000	1,000,000	20,000,000
12	25,000	800	5,000,000	8,000,000	5,000,000	2,000,000	20,000,000
13	22,222	900	5,000,000	8,000,000	5,000,000	2,000,000	20,000,000
14	20,000	1000	5,000,000	8,000,000	5,000,000	2,000,000	20,000,000
Line of demarcation between subsisting comfort, and more than sufficiency.							
15	13,333	1500	5,000,000	9,000,000	4,000,000	2,000,000	20,000,000
16	10,000	2000	5,000,000	9,000,000	4,000,000	2,000,000	20,000,000
17	8,000	2500	5,000,000	10,000,000	4,000,000	1,000,000	20,000,000
18	6,666	3000	5,000,000	10,000,000	4,000,000	1,000,000	20,000,000
19	5,710	3500	5,000,000	11,000,000	3,000,000	1,000,000	20,000,000
20	5,000	4000	4,000,000	12,000,000	3,000,000	1,000,000	20,000,000
21	3,000	5000	2,500,000	9,000,000	2,500,000	1,000,000	15,000,000
Line of demarcation between more than sufficiency, and extreme superfluity.							
22	2,000	7,500	1,500,000	10,250,000	2,500,000	750,000	15,000,000
23	1,000	15,000	1,000,000	11,250,000	2,000,000	750,000	15,000,000
24	500	24,000	1,000,000	9,500,000	1,000,000	500,000	12,000,000
25	200	30,000	500,000	4,500,000	500,000	500,000	6,000,000
26	100	50,000	300,000	3,900,000	300,000	500,000	5,000,000
27	50	75,000	150,000	3,000,000	100,000	500,000	3,750,000
28	33	100,000	100,000	2,600,000	100,000	500,000	3,300,000
Total	2,941,383	£163	240,000,000	147,000,000	68,000,000	25,000,000	480,000,000
Gross produce of soil, }							
40,000,000 acres, at 6l. }			240,000,000				

The Classification, and Annual Incomes of the Population of **GREAT BRITAIN**, in the preceding Statement have been deduced from the *three* following assumed facts, *Viz.* — The total Number of Families, the Number of productive Acres of Land, and the *Actual Money Amount of Taxation*, as stated in Column No. 6, every other part of the Statement is entirely hypothetical; but it will be seen, that the sum of the hypothesized details, constitute the exact sum of the assumed facts, consequently if any one Item is either under or over rated, something must be taken from one Item to add to another, and the best proof of the near approximation to correctness of all the details will be that of enquiring, if something be subtracted from one Item to which must it be added? or *vice versa*. Having thus established the near approximation to correctness of the details, the inferences deducible from the Statement at large will be as follow, *Viz.* That however minutely diversified, and subdivided the modes of production may be, all Produce resolves itself into two elemental parts *Viz.* Natural produce or the produce for subsistence, and Artificial produce or the productions for comfort and enjoyment; and that whatever *Money Value* is assigned to the aggregate supply of the Produce for subsistence as the primary elemental portion of production, of necessity governs the *Money Value and Amount* of the aggregate supply of all other production, and that as regards the vague and absurd notions which have hitherto prevailed on the subject of "**NATIONAL WEALTH**" the Nation is obviously as rich, the produce of the Soil being the same in quantity and quality, Valued at six farthings $\frac{1}{4}$ Acre as it is Valued at 6 or £600 $\frac{1}{4}$ Acre. All subsistence and all accumulation derived either from *Rents*, or the more insidious and indirect means of *Annuities, Profits, Profession, Service, or from Taxation direct or indirect*, or indeed by any means, except that of *productive labour*, are virtually derived from the products of labour, consequently all accumulation resolves itself, not into any accession of *National Wealth*, but into an *abstraction* from the fair and just reward due to the labour and skill applied in production, at the sacrifice of privation of consumption. On a full and fair analysis and investigation of the effects of accumulation, it will be seen that its tendency is to produce a converging ascendancy and influence, in a ratio corresponding with its aggregate increase, and that the consequent inseparable from such ascendancy and influence, is, a progressive divergence of *privation, distress, and misery*, in a ratio inversely as the ascendancy and influence converges.

A SUBJECT FOR EURIPIDES:

SUGGESTED BY

AN HISTORICAL PORTRAIT.

[The ensuing Poem, long as it is, may, without impropriety, be called an *impromptu*. And though, in the estimation of its merits or defects, now that it comes *deliberately* before the world, the circumstances under which it was composed are entitled to no kind of influence,—yet, as a literary anecdote, it may not be impertinent to state them.

In a select party, to a domestic concert, at the residence of the Author, during one of the pauses of instrument and song, the conversation happened to turn upon a portrait of Ninon de l'Enclos, which was hanging, with some other drawings, in the music room. The tragical and extraordinary, though well attested, incident which grew out of the circumstance of her *unfading* beauty, was related by one of the party, when a gentleman, well known for his wit and talent both in the regions of verse and prose, and to whose contributions some of the most respectable periodical publications of the day are much indebted, seemed deeply interested; and exclaimed, with a sort of awful admiration, "*It is a subject for Euripides!*"

The exclamation and the tone of feeling in which it was delivered, irresistibly impressed the imagination of the author with the fitness of the story to the purposes of poetry; and instantly taking out his pencil, and withdrawing to the piano-forte, upon which some sheets of paper happened to be lying, while music and conversation were flowing around, he wrote, without a single pause, as rapidly as his hand could move, the effusion here presented.

That in transcribing it, some weeks after, with the pen, some inaccuracies of haste have been corrected, will be, of course, inferred; and some few passages there are, particularly towards the latter end, which, on re-perusal, have been revised and somewhat altered: but by far the major part of the poem remains as it originally flowed from the suggestion and impulse of the moment. And perhaps the hurry of the original composition may be but too apparent.]

HER beauty was not as of mortal mould,
Or blossom of the earth: it was more like
The morning star, that dims all other lights—
It was so clear and radiant. All around
It shed a beaming glory so serene
That the ethereal concave well might joy
In its long lingering. But no star of heaven
Had such a destiny: for high it rode,
And at its height it stood: it had no wane.
The years—the generations, they roll'd on;
And yet it faded not. Successive stars,
In beauty's gay horizon came and went;
And bright they blaz'd: but they were stars of the earth—
Translated flowers, that glitter'd in their sphere
For their short hour, and faded. But not such
Was her perennial charm: it faded not;
But, as exempt from mortal circumstance,
Defied the wreck of time.—Such was NINON!—
A name fantastic Gallia still reveres!
And while the rival beauties of the court
Journey'd from smiles to wrinkles, she alone
Still held her course in youth and jollity—
In jollity and youth! and never thought
But of youth's joyfulness;—its gay parade,
Its revels, and its softer languishments:—
Heedless of all beside: for in her heart
That moral beauty—that sweet sanctity
That constitutes the soul's true loveliness,
And makes immortal fragrance, 'mid the wreck
Of featural bloom and outward semblances,
Had not such residence as might beseem
A vision of such brightness:—earthly there.

Yet—if thou canst not pardon, thou chaste maid,
Who never yet, in deed or thought, hast broken
Thy vestal-woven bond—yet with thy blame
Mingle some pity: weigh her frailties well
With her seducements, ere with rigid taunt

And prudish malediction thou dost point
 Thy saintly censure :—for the very air
 That breath'd around her ; yea, the morning gales,
 The ether, and the elements themselves
 That fed her lamp of beauty, to her sense
 Whisper'd of nought *but* sense, and sense-born joy :
 And flattery, like an incense cloud, roll'd round ;
 And adoration of all lips and eyes
 Made of that beauty a divinity,
 Whose heaven was not of sanctity, but love :—
 A Paphian paradise, in which the blood
 That swell'd with highest pulse was holiest deem'd :
 To whose blue veins the nectar cup supplied
 A liquid flame, pampering unaw'd desire
 To full voluptuousness. And thus she lov'd,
 And was belov'd, for the brief extacies
 The soul has little share in. And as years
 Wore not her youth, her mirror (telling still
 Of roses and of dimples) warn'd her not
 Of Time's maturity, nor of the thoughts
 Maturity should ripen. Fancy, still,
 And gay Imagination, kept alive
 Each juvenile propension—till she learn'd,
 At length, what dire calamity it were,
 Amid this perishable and changeable world,
 To suffer immortality :—to survive
 Our generations in perennial bloom,
 And be as one with a successive race,
 In endless renovation. Yes ! she found
 The unfading rose that ting'd her fairest cheek
 A judgment, not a boon ;—a fatal snare,
 Entangling in such woes, as to redeem
 By sallow age and bleer deformity,
 Were cheap-bought blessedness.

What time that rose

Had bloom'd triumphant thrice the accustom'd date
 Of Beauty's short-liv'd flower, within the sphere
 Of her attractions came a dark-hair'd youth,
 Graceful in mien, and comely in his form,
 And, as herself, right beauteous : but that that
 Which in her sex is melting witchery,
 In him was high command. For sleek and soft,
 Were firmness and impressive dignity.
 His brow, so arch'd ! but from his eye there beam'd
 An animating fire that seem'd to burn
 With consciousness of estimation high,
 And tameless energy.

The youth had rov'd

Through distant regions : from his earliest years
 (He could not tell how early !) so estrang'd
 From home and kindred, that he had forgot
 All parentage—all knowledge of a home,
 Or of his early nurture. For his means—
 The ravens fed him ; or a providence
 To him alike mysterious : for the hand
 Was never seen that shower'd its bounties on him.
 And yet he walk'd in sunshine ; and his spirit,
 Buoyant in bold adventure, had wrought out
 Its own advancement. He was high in fame ;
 Laurell'd with many glories, not unbought
 With honourable scar. Nor skillless he
 In arts of gentler warfare—to entwine
 His laurel with the rose. He had a pulse
 That kindled at an eye's soft blandishment,
 As at a torch the pine : and rare it was

His passion burn'd unanswer'd: his renown
 Was as a load-star to all eyes, and drew
 The glance of beauty on him, and inclin'd
 All ears to listen; and his manly port,
 His speaking glances, and his honey'd tones,
 Temper'd to passion's melting harmonies,
 Could take the virgin heart as in a spell,
 And lead the coyest and the most resolv'd
 Captive alike. But it was soldier's love,
 That counts the joys of beauty with the spoils
 By prosperous valour claim'd;—a boon, not bond!—
 A braid of flowers, and not a stubborn chain
 To hold the heart in thralldom. Fancy-free,
 He rov'd from charm to charm; and felt not yet
 The full-sped shaft of that resistless bow
 That can subdue the mightiest;—that through shield,
 Gorget, and mail—or the still firmer fence
 Of adamant pride, impenetrable
 To other weapon,—wings its easy way,
 And leaves the barb infix'd, to rankle there—
 A shaft of destiny! He knew it not.
 Such wound immedicable he would have deem'd
 A legend for romance; and in his cup,
 While the smiles mantled of the nymph he pledg'd,
 He could see visions still of other forms
 That might be pledg'd hereafter. Round his head
 Love play'd a meteor fire—ardent awhile
 And restless; but it penetrated not
 The seats of vital function. But not such
 Was now his destiny. The hour was come
 When the divinity he sported with—
 The roseate Boy join'd with the stern-brow'd Fates;
 And in the founts—the overflowing founts
 Of bitterest retribution, bath'd those shafts,
 Bated till now with balm. In evil hour
 He saw the fadeless beauty:—saw her such
 As stranger eye must deem her—fresh in youth,—
 As one whom equal years might well inspire
 With equal passion:—saw with hope, and lov'd:—
 Lov'd, and believ'd (what could he less?) his love
 Was not unanswer'd: for her eye had joy
 To look upon him; and her ear had joy
 To listen to him; and her hand to meet
 His hand's warm pressure. He was welcom'd ever.
 It seem'd there was no pleasure for her hours
 But to hold converse with that dark-hair'd youth,
 And hear his bold adventures:—as the maid
 Of Venice listen'd to the adventurous Moor,—
 But with less woo'd inquiry. With a zest
 That seem'd between intreaty and command
 She drew his story from him—weal and woe!
 And seem'd at every tug of fate to thrill,
 As with a self-borne danger. But when came
 The prosperous issue,—when his speech detail'd
 How in the wreck, the conflict, and the toil,
 What *he* call'd chance, but her more partial thought
 Deem'd the high virtue of his soul, subdued
 The danger, which in cogent circumstance
 Had seem'd like thrice-sur'd fate,—then would she grasp
 His hand with a convulsive eagerness,
 And breathe deep thanks, and ask the tale again.—
 Insatiate of the legend:—which being told,
 With eyes all swimming, and with breast all sighs,
 She'd sob short thanks, and from his presence rush,
 To vent some passion not to be controll'd,
 Nor yet, observ'd, indulged.

“ Is this not love ? ”

Exclaim'd the dark-hair'd youth : “ Is it not love ?

“ If not, what stronger passion ? There is none—

“ No passion else than that which swells this heart

“ Could heave the sentient bosom to such storm :

“ None but all-mighty love ! ” And so he fed

(The woe-predestin'd youth !) with meteor hopes

The passion which in heart, and nerve, and reins

Was raging like a fire ;—a fire which fann'd

And fed with fuel of such vain conceit,

Was hastening to devour him :—for there *was*

Another passion that he wot not of—

A passion full of wild solitudes,

That swell'd the bosom of that beauteous one,

And made her, in its extasies of power

And strong emotion, ever when she saw

That form of grace, forgetful of the charm

Of her protracted beauty ; and she dream'd not

What kind of hopes and tumults she inspir'd

By what she meant no blandishment.

Ill starr'd !

The hour too soon arriv'd that vail'd no more

The fatal secret. The impassion'd youth

Avow'd his love—his hopes ; with kindling warmth,

Embracing, press'd upon her shuddering lip

A lover's burning kiss, and would have forc'd

Her seeming coy reluctance to the couch

Of consummation ;—when, with resolute shriek,

And start of horror, bursting from his arms—

“ Forbear ! ” she cried ; and with a look might change,

Like dread Medusa's, hot desire to stone,

Or dart an ice-bolt through the boiling veins,

Held him appall'd ; and pointing to the scene

Of many a guilty pleasure, “ Headlong youth ! ”

She thus exclaim'd, “ the incestuous thought resign.

“ Thou little dream'st that on that very couch

“ I gave thee birth !—thy mother !—thou my son ! ”

Soul-thrill'd awhile he stood. Not more dismay'd

The Theban, who upon his orbs of light

Aveng'd the sin of destiny, and call'd

Upon Cytheron's mount to cover him,

And on the wolves and vultures that had spar'd

The wild-wood cradle, where expos'd he lay,

Guilt-doom'd from infancy !

So lost—so wild—

The unquench'd incest scorching in his veins—

Moveless awhile he stood, with breath suspent,

And sightless vision glaring on the void,

Or communing with phantoms of the brain

In dreamy desperation : nor awak'd

From trance of horror, but to thoughts as dark—

As direful as his dream. One glance he gave—

One red, swift glance of frenzy and dismay

Upon that couch, and on that matron form

Of seeming maiden freshness, which had lur'd

His soul so near perdition ; and one groan—

One bosom-bursting groan, convuls'd, he heav'd,

And vanish'd : for with start so swift he fled,

It seem'd no earthly exit. But where fled

Lists not, alas ! to him : an anarchy

Of gang possess'd him ; and his chance-led steps

Knew not their motion, till he found himself,

In the chill liveness of the night, amid

The tangled forest

Silence

Silence reign'd around
 Through all the void of darkness. There he paus'd,
 List'ning the deathful stillness for awhile,
 And holding commune with it, as a thing
 Familiar with the councils of despair :
 But paus'd not long. Reflection could not calm—
 It could not come: the chaos of the soul
 Admitted not a beam. 'Twas uproar all—
 A storm-wreck of disjointed fantasies,
 That with its billowy heavings stunn'd the sense,
 But not allay'd the pang. His state had nought
 Vital; unless the writhe of agony,—
 The lingering tortures of protracting death,
 Be vital call'd: and reason was not now,
 Nor guidance of the will. Wild—not resolv'd—
 Scarce sentient to the impulse, or the act ;
 With burning brain and bursting heart, he rear'd
 The self-destroying hand,—and was no more !

If she surviv'd, and if the habitudes
 Of custom and occasion, and the pride
 That combats with the world's inquiring glance,
 To hide the bosom's secret agony,
 Restor'd her seeming calm, to float again
 On the world's vanities;—think'st thou (unskill'd)
 Her spirit sunk not? Think'st thou, in her breast
 She nurs'd no scorpion thought that made her hours
 Of solitude, her pillow's waking dreams,
 And visions of her slumber, worse to endure
 Than the still tomb, and loathsome worm that feeds
 Upon the reliques of that form she lov'd,
 But lov'd too late, with all a mother's care?*

△

* For a less tragic anecdote of the protracted beauty of Ninon, see Correspondence in the first number of our 59th volume to be published Feb. 1, 1825.

EXTRACTS FROM PHILOSOPHICAL AND SCIENTIFIC JOURNALS.

PART of a MEMOIR on the MILK of the
 COW-TREE, By MARIANO DE RI-
 VERO, and T. B. BOUSSINGAULT.
Translated from the Spanish.

[From the Edinb. Phil. Journ.]

MR. LAET appears to be the first who has made known, in Europe, one of the most curious vegetable productions of the equinoctial regions,—a tree which gives a kind of milk entirely analogous to that of the cow, and which, for that reason, has been called Cow-Tree. This singular juice, on account of its similitude to the milk of animals, in the place of which, Mr. Humboldt has seen it used for every domestic purpose, on the farm of Barbula,—has been admired by every traveller.

“On the barren declivities of a rock grows a tree, whose leaves are dry and coriaceous. Its thick ligneous roots scarcely enter the rock; for several

months in the year, rain scarcely waters its fan-shaped leaves. The branches appear dry and dead. But when an incision is made in the trunk, a sweet and nutritious milk flows from it. It is at the rising of the sun that the vegetable liquid runs most abundantly. Then the natives and negroes are seen to come from all parts, provided with vessels, to receive the milk, which becomes yellow, and thickens at the surface. Some empty their vessels under the same tree; others carry them to their children. It is like a shepherd distributing to his family the milk of his flock.”—*Humboldt, Voyage aux Régions Equinoxiales du Nouveau Continent*, lib. 5, chap xvi., page 263 et 264.

If those who possess these precious trees near their habitation, drink with so much pleasure their beneficent juice, with what delight will the traveller, who penetrates in these high mountains, appease with it his hunger and thirst?
 thus

Thus we have seen, on the road from Patito to Puerto-Cabello, all these trees full of incisions, made by the travellers, who seek them with anxiety. It would be sufficient, it appears to us, that this milk could be used as an aliment, to value it, and invite to the cultivation of the trees which furnish it; but Nature has been pleased to make it still more precious and useful: for, besides containing so nutritious a constituent as fibrin, it also contains, in abundance, an exquisite kind of wax, which may be extracted with great facility. This vegetable milk possesses all the physical properties of the milk of animals; only it is a little thicker; and it mixes easily with water.

On the MINES of MEXICO. Communicated to the Edinburgh Philosophical Journal by a Gentleman intimately connected with Mexico.

A BEGINNING, in the application of English machinery, in Spanish America, was made several years ago, steam-engines having been sent out to the mines of Potosi and Peru, and found to answer extremely well, until their operation was suspended by the political disorders of the country. At present there are, in London, no less than three associations formed, "for aiding in working the mines of Mexico." One of these originated in a proposal of Don Lucas Alaman, a well-known public character in Mexico; who having, when in Europe, resided chiefly at Paris, was desirous that the first proposal for a mining company should be issued in the French capital. But our southern neighbours, whatever may be their prowess in the field, or their fame in theory, discover very little enterprize in mercantile speculation. The attempt having failed at Paris, was renewed, under better auspices, in London, and a capital of £240,000 was speedily subscribed, the company taking the name of "The United Mexican Association."

Posterior in point of time, but nearly equal in amount of capital, is the Company called Real del Monte, from the district containing their mines, which is situated about sixty miles north of the city of Mexico. This Company is composed, chiefly, of proprietors of English mines, and is less open to the public at large, than the third and greatest of the three, the Anglo-Mexican, whose capital is a million sterling. Most of the mines taken up by this Company are in Guanaxuato, a district of great metallic

wealth, but of which the name was hardly known in Europe, until the appearance, fourteen years ago, of Humboldt's well known work. Contracts of partnership, in several of the mines in that district, were made in Mexico, by individuals, and transferred in London to this Association. The number of mines, great and small, is computed at no less than 3,000.

Mexico, different from the uncultivated provinces of the United States, being in general bare of timber, how, it may be asked, can steam be called in to aid the labours of the miner? Is the geological structure of the mining districts such as to afford a hope of finding peat, coal, or any mineral combustible? Failing these, is the climate such as to favour the growth of particular kinds of wood, which, when cultivated with an almost unlimited command of territorial surface, might supply the requisite fuel? On these points information is, we understand, at present, very anxiously expected.

EXTRACTS from a *Memoir concerning the Chinese*. By JOHN FRANCIS DAVIS, Esq., F.R.S., M.R.A.S. [Transactions of the Royal Asiatic Society. Vol. I. Part. I.]

THE only direct and positive testimony that we seem to possess, out of China, relating to the first origin of the Chinese nation, exists in the Institutes of Menu: and I cannot help thinking that the observations of Sir W. Jones on the passage in question are deserving of great attention. It is there written, that "many families of the military class, having gradually abandoned the ordinances of the Veda, and the company of Brahmens, lived in a state of degradation, as the *Chinas* and some other nations." The great antiquity of the laws of Menu is in favour of the authenticity of the above testimony; for at the period at which Sir W. Jones supposes them to have been written (above one thousand years B. C.), there can be no doubt whatever but the Chinese nation was yet in its infancy, and that it could lay no claim to the character of an extensive, united, and powerful empire, until many centuries after that date: as I shall attempt to shew. I content myself with noticing in this place the statement of one of their own histories,* that twelve hundred

* See Morrison's Chinese Chronology; p. 52.

dred years before Christ, "the Chinese nation was small and feeble, the eastern foreigners that is, the aborigines, perhaps Tartars, between them and the east coast) numerous and strong," and that the former "gradually obtained a residence in the middle of the country," namely, in *Honan*. It is universally admitted among themselves, that the seat of government was at first in *Shen-si*, the north-west part of the present empire, where the colonists, mentioned by the Indian Lawgiver, are supposed to have settled, and that they subsequently carried on wars against a state called *Yen*, in *Péchéli*, and another named *Tsi*, in *Shan-tung*, until they succeeded in fixing themselves in *Honan*.

The opinion, hazarded by M. de Guignes, that the Chinese were a colony from Egypt, seems hardly capable of being supported by sufficient proof. Such a distant and extensive emigration could not have taken place without the knowledge and notice of the nations inhabiting the vast countries that intervene; besides which, there exists no resemblance between the mysterious hieroglyphics of Egypt and the Chinese characters,* which might, as Sir W. Jones observes, "have been contrived by the first *Chinas*, or outcast Hindus, who either never knew, or had forgotten, the alphabetic character of their wiser ancestors." Though M. de Pauw and other learned men have been of opinion that the Chinese were originally a tribe of Tartars, or Scythians, I cannot help thinking that there are some reasonable grounds for concluding that they were a colony from India, and that they owe their present distinctive character to their subsequent mixture with the aborigines of the country, and with the Tartars.

Leaving the religion of his countrymen as he found it, Confucius embodied in sententious maxims the first principles of morals and of government, and the purity and excellence of some of his precepts (whatever may have been said to the contrary by persons ignorant of the language) will bear a comparison with even those of the gospel. He, and he only, of the men who have at different times aspired to teach the

Chinese, was truly deserving of the title of Philosopher; and he alone, during the revolution of ages, has met with uniform veneration. Guided by the light of reason, he applied the energies of a powerful intellect to the *Study of Man*, and grounded his doctrines on the fixed and immutable principles of human nature. His works are at this day the Sacred Books of the Chinese, and when compared with the evanescent relics of *Fo* and of *Laou-Keun*, confirm the superiority of truth over the fictions of artful, and the ravings of fanatical teachers. Thus it is that "opinionum delet dies, naturæ judicia confirmat."

Among other points of inquiry relating to the Chinese, their attainments in the various branches of human knowledge have naturally been the objects of much curiosity in Europe. With respect to those arts of life which administer to the wants and enjoyments of mankind, they must be allowed to have made a very early and considerable proficiency, and are even at this day, in many respects, the most skilful and best workmen in the world. Of science, however, they are, and appear always to have been, entirely destitute. The ancient skill of the Hindus, in astronomical and algebraic science, has been clearly and ably demonstrated: but no proofs have yet occurred that they imparted any portion of that skill to the Chinese. I feel persuaded that, until the introduction of astronomy into the Empire by the Arabians, in the first instance, and subsequently by the European Missionaries, the whole science of the Chinese consisted in a careful observation and scrupulous notation of the eclipses, and other heavenly phenomena. Their ignorance led them to attach the most important political influences to the different aspects and conjunctions of the celestial orbs, and hence arose the exactness with which they marked and chronicled them. Confucius has recorded six and thirty eclipses of the sun, the greater number of which have been verified by the calculations of European astronomers: but the recording an eclipse may prove the authenticity of historical annals, while, at the same time, it proves nothing as to the existence of astronomical science.

* A learned and ingenious original article in the M. M., Vol. 59, No. 406, to be published on the first of February 1825, will demonstrate, however, that there is such resemblance.—EDIT.

NA'AR, with a Latin Inscription from
MERÖE.

[From Brand's Quarterly Journal of the Royal
Institution.]

Soughton-hall, Northop, N. W.
Nov. 26, 1824.

MY DEAR SIR.—I have to communicate to you a piece of intelligence, which, I am sure, will give you pleasure. My great traveller, Monsieur Linant, is at length with me, and has brought with him, in safety, the harvest of his journey to Napata and Meröe, and into the country beyond Senna'ar. There are maps and plans of every thing connected with his route, together with a very detailed journal, and about a hundred and fifty most beautiful drawings, all extremely detailed and minute, and some of them upon a very large scale. I find the ruins at Meröe magnificent beyond all expectation; but what interests me the most in their appearance is the striking admixture, which is very visible in them, of the Persian with the Egyptian style, and this not in the sculptured subjects only, but in the architecture also; no such resemblance being at all discoverable in any other ruins of that country, nor any where lower down upon the Nile. Surely this seems to be a wonderful confirmation of the tradition mentioned by Strabo, that Cambyses was the founder, and called the city Meröe, after the name of a wife or a sister, it was doubtful which: it seems to me probable that she was both; and if there be really any truth in the tradition cited, the circumstance recorded in the same passage, that the king carried Egyptians with him, will very sufficiently account for the edifice not being purely Persian, but rather of a mixed and grafted style. The bas-reliefs, however, seem to partake more of Persian than of Egyptian details. Strabo says of Cambyses: "He, together with some Egyptians, advanced as far as Meröe; by which name, it is said, he designated the island and city, in remembrance of his sister Meröe—some say his wife—who died there: and therefore, in honour of her, he conferred upon them a human name*]". And Herodotus states, in his *Thalia*, that Cambyses was married to two of his sisters, though it is plain also, from the same passage, that it was contrary to the Persian usage. Josephus,

* Some of our readers, of that sex at least which is not expected to be very familiar with Greek, will, perhaps, not be displeased at our having substituted a literal translation in the place of the original text.—ED.

in that strange chapter of his *Antiq. Jud.* where he gives the account of the expedition of Moses into Æthiopia, speaks distinctly and positively of the founding (or re-founding rather, and new naming) of Meröe, by Cambyses, it having before had the name of Saba. There is a large extent of ruin (but without any thing grand or architectural) at *Soba*, considerably south of Meroarat, near the junction of the Bahr el Abiad with the Abyssinian Nile. These last remains, however, I am well persuaded, are not upon the site of Meroe, and that Meroarat is its true situation; the position of this agreeing well with the distance given by the ancient geographers to that city from the junction of the Astaboras (*Atbara*) with the Nile.

The next observation that I have to make upon the drawings is in confirmation of the report given by the spies sent up by Nero, which is preserved in Pliny. They spoke of the principal temple at Meröe being dedicated to Ammon (which is evidently proved by the sculptures on it), and that there were many lesser temples in the country round about, which is also true; that the city was in those days become a small one, which is confirmed also by the very little traces that remain of inferior buildings, or heaps of rubbish about the temple. I had always cherished a faint hope that some vestiges might be found of these Roman military spies, the custom being very general, of recording upon the public edifices all along the Nile, even the most ordinary visits.

I was very anxious for any token of inscription from Meröe: there are some scraps of Coptic, which are, perhaps, Christian, and seem to promise nothing of interest, of which I have copies; but there is one also, which, I regret to say, seems to have been very ill copied, which has a much more inviting appearance: it is certainly in Latin; and, therefore, I take it for granted, not of Christian times. All Egypt furnishes no more than two or three scanty instances of inscriptions in Latin; and to find this language at Meröe is, therefore, so unexpected, that I cannot help suspecting it to be the work of the tribune, or of some of his companions, sent up by Nero to Meröe as spies: I can, however, make very little of it, for Linant, seeming to have taken it for granted, that (because it was cut in a slovenly manner) it was of no interest, has made but a careless copy, instead of conforming to my injunctions in making

making several at different times of the day.

[Then follow two copies of an "*Inscription on the wall of the great staircase, among the ruins of Meraurát, probably the ancient Meroe,*" as copied by Linant, the other by Mahomet the old interpreter and janissary who accompanied him; with an attempt to decypher the same.]

The passage in Pliny, which I have my eye upon, is this: "nuper renunciavere principi Neroni missi ab eo milites prætoriani cum tribuno ad explorandum." They brought word that "*Ædificia oppidi pauca; regnare fœminam Candaocen, quod nomen multis jam annis ad reginas transiit. Delubrum Hammonis et ibi religiosum, et toto tractu sacella.*"

The god, who is represented receiving the offerings upon the columns of the great temple, has the rams head, as at Diospolis and at Siwah; and there is sufficient evidence of the truth of the remainder of the paragraph in the vestiges of other religious structures which remain.

It was, indeed, this short passage in Pliny that gave me so keen an appetite for having that region well explored.

Another accordance with the history of a country, about which we know so little, has struck me exceedingly: it is in the circumstance of the Royal Personage represented in the sepulchral chapels attached to the numerous pyramids, with the diadem, and in the act either of slaying, or of being presented to the god, being in many instances female; a circumstance rarely, if ever, seen in Egypt, and seeming to stand there in proof of the reign of the several Candaces, whom we read of in history; a name which, Pliny says, was common to them, and which, doubtless, was simply, in *Æthiopic*, the word signifying the Queen. Some points are observable also in these figures, which are remarkable as being in conformity with the present usages and prejudices of that barbarous country. The Queen is represented with nails as long as the talons of a bird, a particular never observable in Egyptian sculptures, neither is there any such modern usage in Egypt, but in the upper country about Senna'ar and Merœ this is very general amongst the women. There is also represented, in the same sculptures, a sort of ring, which, though worn on one finger only, has a broad plate attached to it, which extends across the whole back

of the hand; this also does not occur, either in ancient or in modern Egypt, but is common in the districts where these sculptures occur, with the women, to this day. Again, the form and outline of these Candaces are very remarkable, and quite without example, on the storied buildings, lower down upon the Nile; the form below the waist being almost that of the Hottentot Venus, both as to the hips and behind. This is considered in Abyssinia as a great mark of distinction and high birth. There was, when I first went to Jerusalem, an Abyssinian Princess there, upon a pilgrimage, the daughter of a deceased King, most remarkably proud in this respect, and who piqued herself greatly upon it. I have heard an English Lady say, that she could not believe the peculiarity to be natural till she saw the lady in the bath. None but the Queens are honoured with this figure in the bas-reliefs, the female attendants and the goddesses being as slender and as scanty as elsewhere upon the Nile. The gods seem to have been the same as in Egypt, only there is one with a sort of lotus head, that I do not feel well acquainted with; and the lion-headed Isis has, in one instance, both her head and her arms tripled, so as to bear a great affinity to the Indian deities.

The country is not like Egypt, but covered with herbage and abounding in forests, with monkeys leaping and chattering in the branches: this circumstance, the historical sculptures lower down had led me to expect, where the conqueror (probably Sesostris) is represented chasing a naked people with flat noses and thick lips into forests, in which monkeys are sitting, evidently placed there to designate and characterize the country where the event took place.

Linant observed no parrots, though Pliny very exactly sets down (on the authority of the spies) the name of the place where they are first found in following the Nile upwards; always taking it for granted that Psittacus should be so translated, of which I am by no means sure. Both Linant, however, and an attendant who was with him, speak in high terms of the beautiful plumage of many of the birds which they saw (several of the skins they have brought with them, but I have not yet got them from Milford), and of the shrill cries and discordant notes which proceed from them, especially about day-break. The Ibis, so common in ancient times

times, but now unknown in Egypt, is often seen, and is said to frequent the streets even of Senna'ar (as Alexandria anciently), in a very confident and domestic manner, at some seasons of the year, but now in that when Linant was residing there. The Guinea fowl abounds.

Of the larger animals, there are droves of wild elephants, but none in a reclaimed or domestic state (neither are there any, I apprehend, in Abyssinia), which seems to be very strange in countries where the people have been always warlike. The Hippopotamus is common in the river, and the whips (called Coorbash) sold in Egypt, are really manufactured from its hide; and not from the elephant's, as I have heard pretended at Cairo. This creature is not of the form in which it appears in all our plates of natural history; it is of a much lower and more lengthened proportion, which I had myself imagined from the skin and remains of that which I saw (recently killed) at Damietta, in my last journey. Its cry is a sort of loud grunting, very hideous and alarming, especially in the night time; but it is not considered a ferocious or dangerous animal: neither did any which Linant saw exhibit the appearance of those protruded tusks which are shown in the pictures of this animal. He saw some that were of a bay colour, and had white faces; this possibly may account for the strange misnomer both in Greek and in Arabic, of calling a creature, so very differently shaped, the river horse.

The abundance of camels (of course domestic) is so great, that no meat is commoner in the market at Senna'ar or Shandy; those which become unserviceable being killed for eating. Wild swine are found in great numbers in the moister places, and are eaten by many of the natives, though Mahomedans, without scruple, who will also both eat raw meat occasionally, and drink the warm blood of living animals. The wild ape goes in large herds. The giraffe was spoken of as of no very rare occurrence; but Linant met with none in a wild state; he was, however, so lucky as to see one at Senna'ar, brought thither by the Natives (the same as has been since sent as a present to the Grand Seignior, and is, I apprehend, now alive at Constantinople): this was at that time very young, and no bigger than a fawn: very gentle and docile in its disposition: it then fed upon milk, straddling out its

legs very wide, in order to reach the ground, which, with so very long a neck, one should hardly have thought necessary, though this has always been said of it. The natives uniformly spoke of the Unicorn as of a real and known animal, and to the usual description of its form added, that the horn was moveable at the creature's pleasure; a circumstance which, from the position of it, seems impossible.

Linant still seems to cast a wistful eye on the White River, upon which he had a great desire to have proceeded. A strange story was told him by the Jellabs, and persons who had come from above, that there is a place, where, after becoming immensely broad, this Bahr el Abiad turns and flows to the westward, which is only possible (?) by supposing a great lake, out of which two similar streams proceed, one running westwards, and one falling into the Nile. The Blue river, the Nile of Bruce (and, in justice to Bruce, we must add of the people of the country), is so nearly dry at one season, that Linant himself crossed it when there were but a very few inches of water in the channel, the Bahr el Abiad having then a full and strong current.

LAVA found in the Sands near Boulogne.

ROBERT BAKEWELL, Esq., in a letter to the Editors of the Philosophical Magazine, states the following circumstances:—When I was at Boulogne in September last, I was informed that masses of lava, of different sizes, were frequently found on the sands west of the harbour. M. Dutertre in the lower town had several specimens, from which he obligingly broke one to give me a part.

The lava is of a darkish gray colour, porous, but extremely hard, and filled with grains of olivine; it bears a close resemblance to the lava from the Puy de Nugerre in Auvergne, described in the second volume of my *Travels in the Tarentaise, &c.*, except that the latter contains no olivine, at least in those parts where I examined it. An inquiry suggests itself of some importance in Geology—Are these masses of lava which are left on the sands after high tides, merely fragments that have been thrown out as ballast somewhere on the coast? Or are they derived from volcanic rocks, hitherto unnoticed, in Brittany or Normandy, which, like those of Auvergne, may have been
erupted

erupted from beneath the granite, and fragments brought down by the rivers intermixed with it on the surface? If might be washed by the tides and currents as far west as Boulogne.

EXTRACTS FROM NEWSPAPERS.

THE avowed determination of our Government to acknowledge the independence of the Columbian, Brazilian, and Mexican States, will, we trust, justify us in the estimation of our readers for compiling from the columns of the *Times* Newspaper the following account of the completion and publication of the Mexican Constitution.

Sovereign Constituent Congress. Presidency of Senor Zavala. Sittings of October 4.—When the constitution was subscribed by the members, a deputation appointed for the purpose was deputed to present it to the Executive. This commission consisted of Senors Vargas, Guerra, Perez, Duslonguer, Arguelles, Embides, Casares, Cabrera, Florriaga, Veliz, Ahameda, Gutierrez, Fernandez del Campo, Paredes, Alared, Vasquez, Osorez, Valle, Bastamente, Escalante, Marquez, Barbabesa, and the secretaries Viga and Piedra. It was then decreed, 1. "That without loss of time, the Government shall proceed to the solemn publication of the Constitution in the capital, and communicate it immediately to the governors of the states, and the political authorities of the territory, that the same may be done on every point of Mexico.—2. That the Supreme Executive Power will regulate the ceremony of the publication, of which the preceding article speaks, taking care that it is all conducted with due solemnity."

"The Supreme Power received with respect the Constitution presented, and manifested, with enthusiasm, the singular pleasure which it felt at seeing the regeneration of their country completed. It declared that it would spare neither labour nor diligence to cause this fundamental law to be observed, and was impatient to receive the order to come and swear to observe it.

At two o'clock in the afternoon, the Commission left the Palace of the Sovereign Congress with a guard of honour, amid salvoes of artillery, the ringing of bells, and the joyful acclamations of the people. The deputation having arrived in the magnificent saloon, where the Executive Power was waiting them; Senor Vargas, the president of the deputation, pronounced a patriotic discourse, to which General Guadalupe Victoria, President of the Supreme Executive Power, replied in appropriate terms; and the Constitution was fully ratified, both by the Executive and the Congress. A manifesto, of great length, and which does equal credit to the patriotism and the intelligence by which it seems

to have been dictated, was accordingly published by the Supreme Executive Power to the nation; stating that the nation was about to be governed by one President; explaining the principles of the federal constitution adopted; the struggles by which it had been obtained; the duties of citizens; the necessity of subordination, &c.

As our limits do not permit us to enter into the subject at length, suffice it to say, that the Republic of Mexico has adopted the constitution of the North American Union, as its general model—that the Mexican Government is federal—and that the Republic is entitled the United Mexican States. Like the North American Union, the United Mexican States possess a general legislative, a general executive, and a general judicial power, together with a legislative, executive, and judicial power for each state. It is the General or Federal Constitution, embracing and controlling all the states, which has just been finished and promulgated. The Provincial Authorities and Legislatures are still proceeding with the formation of their separate codes. The General or Federal Legislature consists, as in North America, of a House of Deputies and a Senate. The election of the former, as in North America, takes place every two years. The basis of the nomination of Deputies is the extent of population. A Deputy is to be elected for every 80,000 souls, or for any fraction of that number which shall exceed 40,000. For proportioning the number of Deputies over the Union, a census of the population is to be made every ten years. The Senate is to be composed of two Senators for every State, chosen by the separate State Legislatures. The meeting of the two bodies of Deputies and Senators is called, as in North America, the General Congress. It would be needless to the readers of constitutions to specify the powers, privileges and duties of the individual members or collective bodies of these assemblies. The Deputies and Senators are to be paid for their attendance, by a law which is to be afterwards passed. The ordinary session of Congress is every year to begin on the 1st of January, and to end on the 15th of April. When extraordinary sessions are held, the specific subject of deliberation must be determined in the decree by which the legislative bodies are convoked. The executive power of the Mexican Federation is to reside in a single person, called the President of the United Mexican States. This supreme magistrate is to be elected

elected by the separate State Legislatures, each of which is to nominate two candidates for the Presidency—one of whom, at least, shall not belong to the state which makes the return. The names of these candidates are to be transmitted to the General Congress, which shall declare President, the candidate who unites in his person the greatest number of votes. The duration of the President's functions is limited to four years. A Vice-President is likewise elected in the same manner, and for the same term, to supply the President's place, if by physical inability, or any other cause, he should be prevented from discharging the duties of his office. The powers and prerogatives of the President are similar to those of the same magistrate in the North American Union. He appoints or removes the Secretaries of State; he appoints to posts in the army and navy; he disposes of the armed force by sea and land, in peace or war, by the advice of the Congress; he convokes the Legislative Bodies to an extraordinary session; he provides that justice be duly administered; he promulgates the acts of Congress, and does other acts of supreme power. During the recess of Congress, the supreme magistrate is provided with a council, consisting of half the members of the Senate, or of a counsellor for every state of the Union. The judicial power of the Federation is to reside in a supreme tribunal of justice, and in circuit courts. The first is to consist of 11 members, distributed into three halls or chambers. The members of this supreme tribunal are to be elected, like the President, by a majority of votes of the different State

Legislatures. The duties of this supreme tribunal are, to take cognizances of the differences which may arise between the separate states of the Federation, or between the authorities of one state and the subjects of another; to settle disputes which may spring up respecting the construction of the acts of the Supreme Government; to decide on the jurisdiction of the separate tribunals of the Union; and to judge, without appeal, in the trial of criminal cases affecting senators, deputies, ambassadors, consuls, or any of the higher officers of the Supreme Government. This constitutional act then proceeds to describe the nature of the State Governments, and to fix the limits of their separate jurisdictions, as they refer to the general Union. Each of these State Governments move uncontrolled within its own sphere, and all partake of the movement and obey the influence of the general federative system of which they form harmonious parts. As Mexico was once a colony of Spain, the constitutional act very properly begins by declaring its independence of Spain and every other Power. We are sorry, however, that the Mexican Legislators have been restrained by their situation, or prevented by their prejudices, from declaring one theoretic maxim of great importance—namely, the right of every man to liberty of conscience; or should have had the following declaration and enactment, which compose the third article of their constitutional act:—"The religion of the Mexican nation is, and always shall be, the Catholic Apostolic Roman religion. The nation protects it by just and wise laws, and prohibits the exercise of every other."

SUPPLEMENTARY VARIETIES, &c.

Messrs. Sowerby have circulated proposals for enlarging their library, and removing their Museum of Natural History to a situation, in some central part of London, where it may be connected with Reading-Rooms, and become of easy reference. But as this object cannot be attained without considerable expense, they request the co-operation of those friends and lovers of Natural History who may be inclined to further these views by annual or other subscriptions towards an establishment, the utility of which is generally admitted, and the want of which has long been felt. The plan in contemplation is to establish an annual income to cover the expenses of purchasing and arranging books and subjects, &c., and the occupation of the requisite premises; in return for which, the subscribers are to have *constant and free access to the Museum and Library*, or either separately, and such other privileges as may be found expedient. As it is the plan in contemplation to place the establishment upon a useful, rather than a

magnificent scale, five hundred pounds a year, it is stated, may be enough to begin with: which, it is hoped, may be obtained by annual subscriptions of *two or three guineas*, and a small deposit for the purchase of books, &c., from each subscriber at the commencement. As it is not supposed that LADIES should be excluded from the Museum, it has been hinted that a room may be set apart for comparative anatomy. The Museum contains an extensive and arranged collection of British Minerals, Rocks, Plants, Birds, Fishes, Insects, Crustacea, Fossil, and Recent Shells; and a collection of Foreign Minerals, Fossil, and Recent Shells, and Corals, together with about £400 worth of books, all held as security for the payment of certain annuities.

Proposals are in circulation for publishing by subscription, a print, representing the Christmas Cattle Show, at Sadler's Repository, to be engraved by an artist of eminence, from a painting by Mr. Walter, and to be dedicated to the Smithfield Club, likenesses

likenesses of several distinguished Members of which, together with accurate portraits of Prize Cattle, it will contain. The Print will be of the same size with the Engraving formerly published of the Bedford Sheap Shearing, and will be ready for delivery in the course of the ensuing summer.

A *destructive Whirlwind* occurred on the 6th of July 1823, in the north of France, whose terrific effects have lately been described with considerable minuteness in the "Bulletin Universel;" these effects were confined to a very narrow strip of country, extending from *Assorwal* village, six miles west-south-west of St. Omers, to *Lilliers*, three leagues distant from Lambre. In most of its particulars, this is similar to a whirlwind which, in the summer of 1780, during a thunderstorm which occurred in the night, crossed Barnes Common and Roehampton Lane, in Surrey, overset a windmill, overturned a large barn, in which were sleeping a whole group of Irish gardener's labourers, many of whom were killed, and did much other damage. Mr. Farey, who next day viewed this latter scene of desolation, furnishes us with these particulars.

Mangel-wurzel leaves a substitute for spinage. A correspondent, who writes from Somersetshire, in the Farmer's Journal, weekly newspaper, No. 898, after describing his practice of some years standing, in growing the *letsom beet*, or German root of scarcity, in the intervals between, and as a second crop to pease, beans, cabbages, &c., in a large kitchen garden, for food to his milking cows, states that he, two or three years ago, discovered that the young leaves plucked from the mangel-wurzel plants and boiled are so perfect a substitute for spinage, that he has left off growing the latter, with a considerable saving of expense and trouble.

Literæ Sacræ; which will contain a Comparison between the Doctrine of Moral Philosophy and Scriptural Christianity, in a series of letters. Vol. I., 8vo. is nearly ready.

Tales of Fault and Feeling. By the Author of *Zeal and Experience*; in 3 vols. 12mo.

A Volume of Poems, by Mrs. Cannon of Hungerford, entitled, *Maria and St. Flos*: to which is added, *A Search after Happiness*.

The Astrologer of the Nineteenth Century; containing sixty original designs of Hieroglyphics, Talismans, and Horoscopes. Its contents have been collected from MSS. in the British Museum, the Ashmolean Museum at Oxford, the Bodleian Library, the Libraries at Bristol Cathedral and Wells. And they comprise, the Ancient Practice of raising Spirits and invoking the Dead; Apparitions; Visions; Charms; Wonderful Secrets; and other subjects never disclosed since 1590.

Observations on some of the Dialects in the West of England, particularly Somers-

setshire; with a Glossary of Words now in use there, and Poems and other pieces exemplifying the dialect. By James Jennings, Esq. In crown 8vo.

Christian Letters to a Physician at L—; also an Expostulation against Ashdod Phraseology; and Some Thoughts on the Inaptness of the Christian Believer's Costume. By Epsilon.

Practical Observations on certain Pathological Relations which exist betwixt the Kidney, and other Organs of the Human Body, and more especially the Brain. By J. Fosbroke, Surgeon, Cheltenham.

Among the numerous publications of the day, a LADY of Leicester has issued a small tract, entitled "Immediate, not gradual Abolition." It is written in a very bold and nervous style, and has already been successful, in many places, in introducing the use of East-India produce, which is its immediate aim.

The Rev. LUKE BOOKER has published a small volume of lectures, "On the Lord's Prayer;" but we fear, unless his reputation, as a theologian and an author, rests more securely on some of his former works, this will not establish it to his satisfaction.

An interesting and important work, entitled "Celebrated Trials and Remarkable Cases of Criminal Jurisprudence," is announced for publication in January, in six handsome volumes, with Engravings. A work of this description, in which the technical prolixity of the State Trials, and the ordinary details of the Newgate Calendars might be avoided, has been long a desideratum. A collection of rare and valuable prints and trials, procured, it is said, at considerable expense, is promised in this compilation. The series of trials will extend from Lord Cobham in 1418, to the present time; together with Appendices of Trials of anterior date, and several curious cases of Witchcraft.

A Supplemental volume to Pope's Correspondence, is in a forward state.

Iturbide, the late Emperor of Mexico, is said to have written a Romance, which has recently been published at Paris.

A new translation of Bishop Jewell's Apology for the Church of England, with his life, is in the press.

"A corrected Report of Speeches delivered at the Meeting for erecting a Monument to the Memory of the late James Watt," may be expected in a few days.

Mr. Thomas Pennington, M.A., will shortly publish "Former Scenes Renewed; or Notes, Classical and Historical, in a Journey and Residence on the Continent," 1s.

An Appendix to the Pharmacopœia Londinensis, by Mr. Maugham, is preparing for publication.

The Minnesinger's Garland, or Specimens of the Poetry of the German Minnesinger's or Troubadours of the 12th and 13th Centuries:

turies: with Historical, Biographical, and Critical Notices, and engravings from the illuminated MS. of the Minnesingers, in the Royal Library at Paris; is in the press.

A short Narrative of Lord Byron's last Journey to Greece, will speedily be published.

A new Monthly work, entitled the Botanic Garden, or Magazine of Hardy Flower Plants, cultivated in Great Britain, will shortly be commenced.

In the course of the month will be published "Memoirs of Moses Mendelshon, the Jewish Philosopher, including the correspondence between him and Lavater on the Christian Religion."

Sir Egerton Brydges will shortly publish "Recollections of Foreign Travels," in 2 vols. post 8vo.

Vols. 3 and 4. completing Kirby and Spence's Introduction to Entomology, with portraits of the Authors, are nearly ready for publication.

Travels in South America, in 1819-20-21, by Alexander Caldecleugh, Esq., are nearly ready for publication.

Mr. Charles Butler, of Lincoln's-Inn, is about to publish "The Book of the Roman Catholic Church, in a series of Letters to Robert Southey, Esq., on his Book of the Church."

The Peerage and Baronetage Charts for 1825, will be ready in a few days.

"Husband Hunting; or the Mother and Daughter;" and "The Highest Castle and the Lowest Cave," are announced for publication.

Conversations on Geography and Astronomy, with engravings, are in the press.

Miss Benger is about to publish Memoirs of Elizabeth Stuart, Queen of Bohemia, and her unfortunate Family, with Sketches of Royal and Illustrious Characters during the Thirty Years' War.

Mr. Bowdler, the Editor of the Family Shakspeare, is preparing for the press, an edition of Gibbon's Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, for Families and Young Persons, by the omission of objectionable passages. The Fourth Edition of Bowdler's Family Shakspeare is nearly ready.

The Annual Biography and Obituary for 1824, will be published within the month, and will contain Memoirs of Charles Grant, esq. M. P.; Lord Erskine; Belzoni; Wilson Lowry; Major Cartwright; Capel Lofft, Esq.; Thomas E. Bowdich, Esq.; Lord Byron; and other distinguished persons deceased within the year.

Loudon's Encyclopædia of Agriculture, will shortly be published.

A Handbook; or, Concise Dictionary of Scientific Words and Terms, small 8vo., is nearly ready.

The Appendix to Captain Parry's Second Voyage of Discovery, containing the Natural History, &c., 4to., will speedily be published.

A Second Series of "Sayings and Doings," is nearly ready.

On the Present State of the Law of England, by John Miller, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn, is in the press.

Notes to assist the Memory in various Sciences, are nearly ready.

The Century of Inventions of the Marquis of Worcester, from the Original MSS. with Historical and Explanatory Notes, and a Biographical Memoir, by Charles F. Partington, of the London Institution, with Engravings, 12mo., will shortly be published.

A volume of Chinese Moral Maxims, compiled by John Francis Davis, F.R.S. Member of the Asiatic Society, is in the press.

The third volume of the Orlando Furioso of Ariosto, translated by William Stewart Rose, is printing.

Scheller's Latin Grammar, translated from the German, with an Appendix and Notes, by George Walker, M.A., Head Master of the Grammar School, Leeds, 2 vols. 8vo., is preparing for publication.

Voyage of Discovery in the Interior of Africa, in 1818-19-20 and 21, by Brevet-Major Gray, and Staff-Surgeon Dochart, is nearly ready.

Four Voyages of Discovery, undertaken to complete the Survey of the Western Coast of New Holland, within the Tropics, between the years 1817 and 1822, by Philip Parker King, R.N., 2 vols. 8vo., may shortly be expected.

Travels in the Hedjaz, by the late John Lewis Burckhardt, with plates, 4to., are printing.

Mr. Hugh Campbell, the illustrator of Ossian, is about to publish "The Rival Queens, or the Case of Elizabeth, Queen of England, and Mary, Queen of Scots; with a Picture of the Queen of England's Amours and Private Life."

Part 1, of "Progressive Geography for Children," is announced for publication in a few days.

An important work is announced for publication, entitled "The Science of Agriculture explained and elucidated by a Commentary and comparative Investigation of the Principles of Agricultural Chemistry of Mr. Kirwan and Sir Humphry Davy, and the Code of Agriculture of Sir John Sinclair and other Authors on the Subject. Contents:—Introduction—General View of the Subject—On breeding or raising Vegetables—On breeding and rearing Animals—On cultivating the Earth—Arrangement of Chemical Principles—On the Roots of Plants—On the Use and Office of the Leaves—On the Rust or Black Blight in Wheat—On fallowing Land, and paring and burning—On Haymaking—On Orchards and Cyder. In 1 vol. 8vo.

The Conway Papers, from the collection of the Marquess of Hertford, are preparing for publication, in 3 vols. 8vo.

Illustrations

Illustrations of Conchology, according to Lamarck, in a series of twenty Engravings, are nearly ready.

Dr. Wordsworth has in the press, "Who wrote ΕΙΚΩΝ ΒΑΣΙΛΙΚΗ," considered and answered, in two Letters to his Grace the Archbishop of Canterbury.

Fairy Legends and Traditions of the South of Ireland, with Engravings are almost completed.

A beautiful copy of the Zodiac of Denderah, in Parian Marble, made by order of Buonaparte, has lately been brought to England, and is now in the possession of a bookseller in Bruton Street.

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"Law and Lawyers," with Portraits and curious Engravings, announced for publication, in a recent number of our Miscellany, may now be expected in a few days.

The Rev. M. Hussey's "Divinity and Divines," in three elegant volumes, will certainly appear within the month.

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